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Devoted to *Scientific Study* of Rural Life

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NUMBER 1

- Medical Research*.....T. Swann Harding
Personality Differences.....Paul H. Landis
Australian Rural Sociology.....Harold C. S. Robinson
A Religious Schism.....Gus Turbeville
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 Edited by Robin M. Williams, Jr.
Current Bulletin Reviews.....Edited by Walter C. McKain, Jr.
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Medical Research in the U. S. Department of Agriculture

By T. Swann Harding †

ABSTRACT

Because of the close relationship between animal and human health, the United States Department of Agriculture has made many scientific discoveries regarding not only diseases which can be passed on from animal, or insect, or plant to man but also many diseases peculiar to man. A few of the outstanding contributions of the Department involve: transmission of disease germs by arthropods, filtrable viruses, hookworm in man, undulant and similar fevers, insecticides, discovery and refinement of antibiotics, pure food and drug control, nutritive values of foods, home processing of foods, and more recently the problems of rural health organization and medical economics.

It is a curious fact that a Government bureaucracy established to collect, create, and disseminate information about agriculture should deviate into medical research. This is nonetheless true. In part it was accidental. But it became inevitable after 1884, when the Bureau of Animal Industry was established by Act of Congress and placed in the Department of Agriculture, because of the close relationship between animal and human pathology.

Moreover, from very early times, the heads of the Department manifested a natural interest in the health of farmers and their families. In the first report of the first Commissioner (the head of the Department did not enter the Cabinet until 1889) of Agriculture, for 1862, there was an article by a New York physician, Dr. W. W. Hall, who had been invited to discuss "The Health of Farmer's Families," and Part II of his article was devoted to "The Hardships of Farmers' Wives." The following year Dr. Hall

wrote eruditely on "miasm", which was then regarded as the cause of all epidemic diseases.

Somewhat later, in 1866, Mrs. Lavinia K. Davis of New Hampshire contributed an article to the report entitled "Female Life in the Open Air." It made much of the poor health of American womanhood of the day and attributed this largely to aversion to open-air exercise. Mrs. Davis also said there was much stomach trouble in those days which she attributed to the eating of hot bread "indigestible as putty." These are mere hints by the way.

The Bureau of Animal Industry was founded when contagious pleuropneumonia, a dread cattle disease, threatened to wipe out our entire livestock industry, got its start in this country in 1842, when a milkman at South Ferry, N. Y., purchased a ship's cow infected with the ailment. The Act of Congress passed in 1884 set up the Bureau of Animal Industry to combat and control the diseases of domestic animals. Within a few years it wiped out con-

† United States Department of Agriculture. Personal communication.

tagious pleuropneumonia but it has continued to this day to perform outstanding research, much of it as much in the human as in the veterinary medical field.

Indeed the consensus of informed opinion is that the most fundamental and outstanding scientific discovery ever made in the Department of Agriculture was in the field of medical science. That was the work by F. L. Kilborne, Cooper Curtice, and Theobald Smith which proved that the cattle tick could spread what was then called Texas but came later to be known as cattle-tick fever, also a live-stock menace of the first order. This was the first demonstration that an arthropod could act as an intermediary host in the transmission of disease germs and since then a great number of diseases, many of them affecting human beings, have proven to be thus disseminated.

Later Marion Dorset of this same bureau discovered that hog cholera, hitherto supposedly caused by a micro-organism, was actually caused by a filtrable virus. This was the first instance in medical history of a disease previously attributed to a germ which turned out to be caused by a virus. The work has been classified with that of Koch and Pasteur. Moreover, it was this same Dorset who developed the egg medium used to grow tuberculosis germs for laboratory study the world over.

Furthermore it was A. F. Woods, a Department of Agriculture plant pathologist, who pointed the way to later work by Stanley and others, when he

attributed tobacco mosaic not to a germ but to something like an enzyme or a ferment. This first suggested the existence of those queer substances in the shadowland between living and nonliving matter. Ultimately the virus was prepared in crystalline form.

Again Woods' eminent colleague, Erwin F. Smith, not only founded the science of phytopathology, but he was elected president of the American Association for Cancer Research in 1925 as a tribute to his remarkable work on the close similarity between certain plant tumors and human cancer. It was Smith also who proved beyond doubt that bacteria could cause plant diseases, in the face of contentions by European experts that germs could not possibly live, much less reproduce, in plant tissue.

Charles Wardell Stiles, while in the Department of Agriculture, discovered and identified the American hookworm of man. Later Maurice C. Hall, also while in Agriculture, and his colleagues, found that carbon tetrachloride, and later less toxic compounds, would eradicate hookworms not only from dogs but also from human beings.

S. Henry Ayres and his associates in the Department made classic investigations which disposed of both lay and medical objections to the pasteurization of milk, and upon which are based most sanitary regulations for the handling of city milk supplies today. Mansfield Clark began his hydrogen-ion investigations in the Department of Agriculture, and they have had an important bearing on clinical medicine and laboratory pro-

cedures as well as wide use in varied industries.

Dr. Alice C. Evans, while in the Department of Agriculture, demonstrated that the human disease variously called undulant, Malta, or Mediterranean fever, contracted by contact with infected goats, was caused by an organism indistinguishable, but not different, from the one that produces brucellosis—called Bang's disease or contagious abortion in cattle. The results of this work had far reaching medical consequences.

Various workers in science in the Department of Agriculture developed methods of swine sanitation and of destroying trichinosis organisms in meats customarily consumed uncooked. This work has helped greatly to protect human health. The same may be said for the Department's phenomenally successful campaign for the eradication of bovine tuberculosis; as a result our human tubercular rate is much lower than that in countries where bovine tuberculosis is unchecked.

A considerable group of workers in the Department's Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine developed rapid and highly efficient methods of testing insecticides, and demonstrated that DDT had outstanding value for the eradication of the body louse which carries the typhus germ, as well as for the control or eradication of many other insects capable of carrying disease germs. Another team of Department workers, at its Northern Regional Research Laboratory in Peoria, Ill., increased the production

of penicillin a hundredfold, with proportionate price reductions, by selecting new strains of the mold which produced it in greater quantity, and by developing an improved culture and methods of growing the mold, in which corn steep liquor, a usually wasted byproduct of the wet corn-grinding process, was an important ingredient.

Quite recently Department entomologists announced a phenomenal new discovery with important medical implications. They had found that when one of a group of the newer insecticides was administered to rabbits in infinitesimally small dosages, it did the animals no apparent harm, but killed the typhus-carrying lice and yellow-fever-carrying mosquitoes which bite them and suck their blood.

It is true that somewhat similar work had earlier been reported in a popular science journal from South Africa, but it was done on one animal only and without adequate controls. Furthermore the Department's work was started earlier and was first published technically.

Its work on the indandiones, which proved most promising and effective of all, was absolutely unique. This recent advance parallels in important respects earlier advances in chemotherapy with sulfa drugs and the use of antibiotics. It is unfortunate that popular science journals so often go off at half-cock on such matters, for much work must yet be done before this method can be applied to domestic animals of value or to human beings. Yet it points the way to making

mammalian blood lethal to blood-sucking insects, but without damage to the mammal.

The work of the State agricultural experiment stations is closely tied legally, in project selection, and in appropriations, to that carried on by the Department of Agriculture. It was at the New Jersey Agricultural Experiment Station that the soil biologist Selman A. Waksman discovered streptomycin. He had long entertained the idea that some soil micro-organisms might in some instances produce antibiotics. In 1944, he was able to extract streptomycin from cultures on which some of them were grown. While the exact place of this substance in the medical armamentarium is not yet surely assigned, it has produced spectacular results in the treatment of a variety of infections.

In the course of investigations on the further utilization of agricultural commodities and byproducts for industrial purposes, the Department's big Regional Research Laboratories, at New Orleans, Peoria, San Francisco, and Philadelphia, have frequently isolated and purified other antibiotics, notably subtilin and tomatin. Gramacidin is another promising antibiotic recently tested extensively. Some of these hold great promise when toxic side reactions are controlled.

Only recently Department entomologists discovered that the bacteria which cause the destructive bee disease called American foulbrood produce an antibiotic which appears to check the growth of organisms caus-

ing tuberculosis, undulant fever, and other serious human illnesses. This is being further studied in cooperation with appropriate medical institutions. Even more recently the medical school of the University of California, which is cooperating with the Department of Agriculture, reported that subtilin appears to check the growth of the tuberculosis bacillus.

A long-time project has been approved under the Research and Marketing Act of 1946 to finance research on new and improved antibiotics derived from agricultural sources. This work is being carried on by various agencies of the Department of Agriculture in conjunction with the National Institute of Health, Duke University School of Medicine, and other such institutions. Nor is such cooperative research between the Department and medical institutions at all uncommon.

Within the past few years a team of workers at the Eastern Regional Research Laboratory discovered rutin in tobacco plants. Then, with the cooperation of the University of Pennsylvania Medical School, rutin was demonstrated to have the remarkable property of decreasing capillary fragility. Capillary fragility is an important factor in precipitating cerebral and retinal hemorrhages, especially in the hypertensive. Later this same research team, led by Dr. James F. Couch, developed a method of making rutin far more economically from dried young buck-wheat plants.

The Department has long carried on investigations in the fields of drug plants and of allergens. Its workers were largely instrumental in giving the quinine industry of this hemisphere a new start during World War II, after Japan cut us off from our customary sources of supply in the Far East. Quinine came back to its native home, partly through research plantings made by the Federal Agricultural Experiment Station in Puerto Rico.

The Southern Regional Research Laboratory developed improved elastic cotton bandages. The Department is carrying on a joint project with the Office of the Surgeon General to find new and better insect repellents and control measures. This includes both study of the direct effects of insects on man and of indirect effects through accidental food contamination. Cooperative projects are also being carried on with the Public Health Service on the identification of mosquitoes and in field examinations and evaluations of dusting and spraying operations.

The Department of Agriculture is, therefore, in the field of medical research in many directions. Some of its findings are incidental to work more definitely in the agricultural field and represent a sort of unearned increment on original investments for research. Many of its medical discoveries are really byproducts of its efforts to find new outlets for farm products. The Department's work in the food field also encroaches on medical science.

As early as 1880 the annual report of the incumbent Commissioner of Agriculture contained a paragraph explaining why the Department could not then legally attempt to analyze food products and take action against those which were misbranded or adulterated. Earlier than that, the Department's first microscopist—at a time when microscopy was still regarded as a separate and distinct science—Scottish-born William Taylor, devised a novel method of distinguishing between pure and adulterated butters by the use of the microscope. Later Dr. Harvey W. Wiley manifested a passionate interest in foods and drugs, their adulterations and misbrandings, which began when he entered the Department of Agriculture in 1883, and lasted until his resignation in 1912. During that time, in 1906, the first Food and Drugs Act was passed and its enforcement remained a Department responsibility until 1940, when it went to the Federal Security Agency.

Methods of food and drug analysis had to be devised from the ground up in those days. They did not exist until the scientists in the Division and later Bureau of Chemistry produced them. The early bulletins of this agency assumed the position of classics, were used as guides throughout the world, and met college chemistry students quickly in their studies. In 1906 also a Meat Inspection Act was passed by Congress and the Bureau of Animal Industry was given responsibility for its enforcement. The work is still carried on by that bureau

and its important human health aspects are obvious.

The Department's researches in the field of human nutrition began under W. O. Atwater, father of nutrition science in this country if not in the world. More than fifty years ago he undertook the task of analyzing common foods in the American diet and compiling tables of their nutritive values. This work has continued ever since, the newer tables giving ever more extensive and detailed information about the nutritive value of the American diet, and including the new food elements as their importance has been recognized.

The nutrition work of Dr. Hazel Stiebeling, Chief of the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, and the protein investigations of Dr. D. Breese Jones in the same bureau are well known nationally and internationally. Whereas Dr. Atwater's tables were limited to the protein, fat, carbohydrate and total mineral contents of foods, recent tables in addition cover three minerals and five vitamins specifically. The Department also performs research designed to provide information on making the best use of available food supplies at different family income levels, so as to ensure the nearest approximation to a well-balanced diet even at low cost.

Department publications also show how the national food supplies are distributed among the population. Department scientists did some of the earliest work on the value and importance of rare or trace elements in

plant nutrition—while studying the growth of certain molds in laboratory cultures. Their results were later applied to farm plant crops, to livestock, and finally to human beings. The Department did pioneer research in vitamin A requirements, storage, and reserves in human beings. Its protein studies have been basic, extensive, and valuable in showing how various food sources of protein can best be combined for economical and beneficial nutrition.

As a result of this research we now know far better how to extend proteins of animal origin, as well as how to supplement various protein foods and devise and consume diets of improved biological value. Much study has also been given to the proper cooking of food and to the storage of food products, as well as to food processing so as to prevent deterioration of nutritive value. The Department has published some of the best popular literature ever produced in the field of human nutrition.

As is well known, farmers, as an occupation group, had the highest rejection rate in Selective Service physical examinations made during the Second World War; their rate was 63.4 percent rejected as compared with an overall rate of only 43. Moreover every Department survey made, like every other survey, has demonstrated that the rural areas have fewer doctors, dentists, nurses, and hospital beds per capita than do urban areas. Public health programs also are weaker in sparsely settled areas. Maybe all that explains why farm

people are so consistently devoted to patent medicines!

The Farmers Home Administration of the Department of Agriculture pioneered in the field of prepaid medical care programs for low-income groups, as a mere means of getting their loan clients to pay off! For it was realized that any permanent rural rehabilitation program depended upon the good health of the families involved for success. But by June 30, 1946, this agency had group health service plans effective in 1,029 counties scattered all over the Nation, and was serving 52,503 farm families.

The annual fees paid for fairly complete medical service ranged from \$20 to \$40 per family per year. These plans met with the uniform approval of the local medical societies, though the national association at times howled them down. But recent changes in legislative authority have caused abandonment of many phases of this medical care program which in some cases started off in communities with subsidies. The agency no longer participates in organizing such groups, though much useful knowledge was gained from the valuable experiments it carried on.

The recreational value of our National Forests, in the custody of the Forest Service, and the highly beneficial effects upon health of work performed by the Soil Conservation Service and the Production and Marketing Administration (under the Agricultural Conservation Program) need no further elaboration. The soil must be preserved, enriched, and prevented

from eroding if the national health is to remain good.

The Cooperative Research and Service Division of the Farm Credit Administration has a project on methods used by cooperative organizations to attack rural health problems. Its principal objective is to pool and release information about their experiences in the field. Since farmers are naturally ready participants in co-operatives, they tend voluntarily to form co-ops for medical service. Many of their cooperative health service associations own and operate their own hospitals and clinics. About 14 groups are already organized and 40 more are on the way.

The Federal-State Cooperative Extension Service takes an active interest in aiding rural people to improve their health and medical services. They reach rural groups directly as does no other educational institution. They can obtain the cooperation of all local health organizations and agencies, focusing the best technical knowledge available on problems as they arise. This helps rural people to realize that their health problems can best be solved by their own joint effort.

It has been demonstrated repeatedly that rural people, like urban, buy more medical and hospital service immediately they have increased incomes. It is technically possible today to provide them with medical services and facilities second to none. Farm people want this. Present record high levels of farm income give them the wherewithal to finance this better than

ever before, and open a great opportunity to the organized medical profession. Medical statesmanship should provide the necessary technical lead-

ership for taking full advantage of this situation to improve medical facilities and care in rural regions throughout the Nation.

Personality Differences of Girls from Farm, Town, and City*

By Paul H. Landis †

ABSTRACT

A comparison is made of measured differences in personality traits of 482 Washington State College girls obtained by use of standard rating scales. Retiring traits characterize a greater proportion of farm-reared than of town- and city-reared girls. Farm girls are also less given to persuasiveness. Difference between residential groups in extroverted behavior are less in homes where parents have a high school education than in those where parents have only grade school training. The larger the area of residence the greater the likelihood of the girl being satisfactorily adjusted emotionally. The higher the level of the parents' schooling the greater the likelihood of the daughter's satisfactory emotional adjustment. The sorority girl is more often of the aggressive type, the ratio of aggressive types from the farm group being especially high. On the matter of emotional adjustment, sorority girls have a slight advantage over the independents. Emotional adjustment for all groups seems to have little relationship to intelligence test ratings. Little difference is found in home adjustment or health adjustment of the residential groups. On values ratings, the farm group is more practical minded, the city group more aesthetic minded.

Personality differences distinguishing rural and urban dwellers have

long been assumed, and logical reasons given for the assumed differences. Objective measurements of personality differences, except in the field of intelligence, have been lacking. This paper reports results obtained by employing general personality scales in comparing a sample of rural and urban girls at the State College of Washington. The results for the most part are in harmony with what has become a part of the folklore of sociology and of rural sociology in particular.

The study, having been initiated during World War II, when a few

* Scientific Paper No. 770, Agricultural Experiment Station, Institute of Agricultural Sciences, State College of Washington.

Acknowledgement is made to the following graduate fellows and research assistants, who, over a period of years, helped with assembling and manipulating data for the study of which this report is a brief summary: Mrs. Katherine Haight Day, Mrs. Georgiana Coleman Huggins, Miss Barbara Ruth Day, Miss Carol Larson.

Data had been assembled by Dr. Helen Smith, Director of Women's Physical Education, for a doctor's thesis which compared personality traits of majors in different divisions of the State College. We are indebted to Dr. Smith for making her basic data available. Scales used in this paper are named later.

† State College of Washington.

men were available on college campuses, was limited to college girls. The particular tests used, and the character of the sample, were determined by the fact that when the study was being set up, it was learned that data on four personality scales had already been obtained in the spring of 1942 for 882 girls by the woman's physical education department. These results were already on I. B. M. cards, and with the addition of certain information that was available in the schedule, rural-urban comparisons could be made without rating a new group.

The findings recorded probably have unusual significance for the reason that a majority of the rural girls in the sample began their education in consolidated schools. Differentials in psychological behavior, and in the general personality traits tested would, therefore, be assumed to be less in the State of Washington than in most states where the majority of rural children have gone to one-room schools until they completed the grades. One would logically suspect

that in these situations where experiences have been predominately in primary group situations rather than being a blending of primary and secondary group experience, much greater differences in general personality pattern would be observed at the college age than were observed in this sample.

Comparison is made between three residential groups: farm, small town, and city, the dividing point between small town and city being 9,999 and 10,000.

Social Adjustments

The best general measure of social adjustment employed in this series of tests is the Bell scale¹ which balances retiring traits against aggressiveness in social contacts. Measurement is by checking "yes" and "no" answers to 140 questions designed to bring out emotional, temperamental, and social attitudes.

The results are presented in Figure I which shows striking differences

¹ Bell, Hugh M., *The Adjustment Inventory—Student Form* (Copyright by Stanford University, 1934).

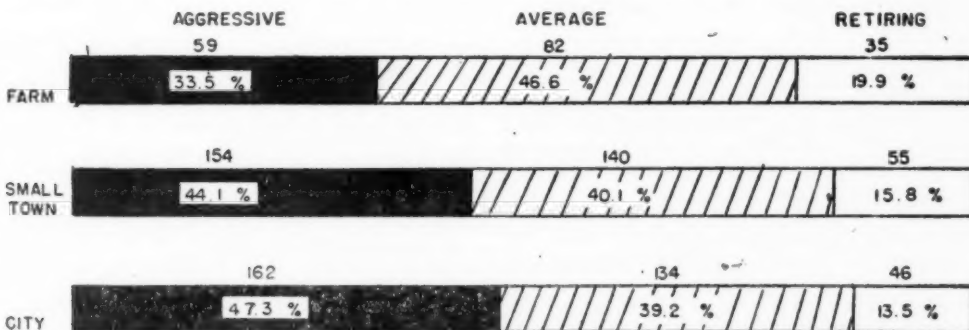


Figure I. Comparative social adjustment of farm, small town and city college girls as measured by the Bell Adjustment Inventory.

between the farm, small town, and city girls, supporting the usual sociological assumption that the amount of a person's social experience, especially in childhood, tends to determine the extent to which he is retiring or aggressive in social relationships.² The results shown are highly significant as measured by the analysis of variance test.

✓ A further breakdown of these data (charts not shown here) indicate that the better educated the parent the less the differential in social adjustment of girls in the three residential groups. For example, where father and mother had only a grade school education, farm girls show a much greater tendency toward retiring behavior than town and city girls. The ✓ index shows that small town girls are the most aggressive of all those whose parents have only grade school education. At the other extreme, where parents have gone beyond high school, the differentials in social adjustment of the three residential groups is slight.

These data suggest that trained parents of farm children are, by some

means, able to offset in large part the disadvantages of upbringing on the isolated farmstead, as far as preparing youth for social adjustment is concerned.

Confirming the Bell results on social adjustment differences for girls, as related to area of their upbringing, are the results of the Kuder Preference Record³ on the matter of persuasiveness.

✓ It would be assumed that farm young people, having been reared in a more isolated geographical environment and, having had less experience with secondary groups, would be given less to persuasiveness of the kind which is manifest in salesmanship, leadership, and other such means of influencing and dominating others.

This assumption is strikingly borne out in the comparison of farm, small town, and city girls. (Fig. II) A much higher proportion of the farm and small town groups fall in the low scoring range than of the city group. At the upper extreme the farm has a low representation, but not as low as the town. The city has the highest num-

² Those with very low scores on the Bell scale are aggressive, possibly to the point that they are not well adjusted. Those with "average" scores as we have classified them here, have lower scores than the standard norm defined as "well adjusted." At the other end of the scale, those with high scores tend to be retiring in their social contacts. Even though some retiring traits are desirable and may indicate good adjustment, those girls with scores higher than the standard norm are given a poor adjustment rating on the Bell scale. Of the two extreme groups, the aggressive group is considered to be generally better adjusted than the retiring group.

³ The Kuder Preference Record is considered a fairly reliable index of the relative prominence of basic vocational interests in the personality. The seven basic interests measured are computational, scientific, persuasive, artistic, literary, musical, and social service.

It is not a test of ability but simply of one's basic interests which when plotted on a scale for each of the seven basic traits, establishes a profile for each individual.

Form BB was used. More recent forms add mechanical and clerical interests. The Kuder Preference Record is published by Science Research Associates, 1700 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

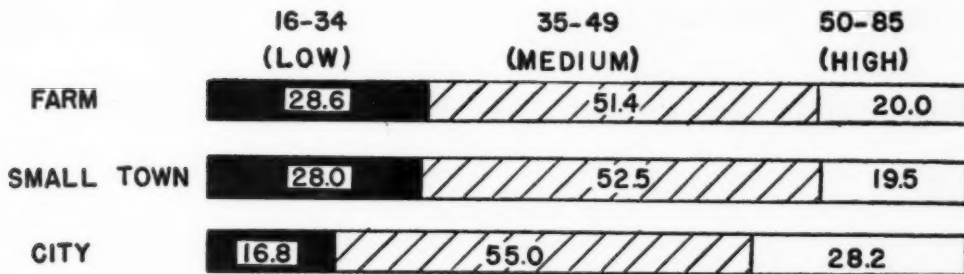


Figure II. Comparative ratings of farm, small town and city college girls on persuasiveness as measured by the Kuder Preference Record.

ber of those who rate high in persuasiveness. Results are statistically significant.

Emotional Adjustment

✓ On the matter of emotional adjustment, the city girls show considerable advantage over those from town and farm. The town group shows an advantage over the farm group. (Fig. III) ✓ The larger the area of residence, the greater the number of girls who are emotionally well adjusted and the fewer who are poorly adjusted. Results, though striking in the chart, do not meet the test of statistical significance.

A further comparison of emotional adjustment (charts not shown here) of the three residential groups in relation to the education of fathers and mothers, shows that for all educational levels, the farm group has the lowest proportion well adjusted, the city group the highest, with the small town group falling between. Generally speaking, within all residential groups, those whose parents have only grade school education have the lowest proportion in the well adjusted group. ✓ Adjustment improves with high school training of parents but the best emotional adjustment is found among those whose fathers and

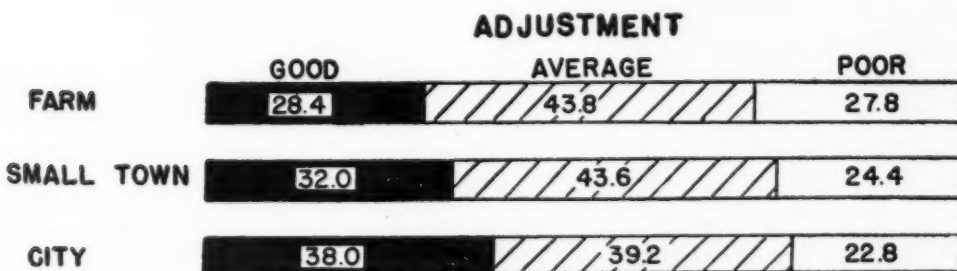


Figure III. Comparative emotional adjustment of farm, small town and city college girls as measured by the Bell Adjustment Inventory.

mothers were schooled beyond the high school level.

Social and Emotional Adjustment and Sorority Status

It is frequently claimed, as justification for the Greek societies, that they make for social adjustment on the part of their members. Whether they select those who are aggressive by temperament or who have become so by experience, or whether the sorority attachment actually encourages aggressiveness is debatable. The impartial observer would probably have to conclude that it is in part a matter of selection, but also that those who achieve sorority membership may actually feel that they have gained a great deal in status, which in itself might encourage aggressiveness, especially in the small town setting of

the State College where such social achievements are generally known to many.

In any case, it is clear (Fig. IV) that the aggressive group is more often found in a sorority. This is true of all residential classifications. It is interesting to observe that almost twice as many of the aggressive farm girls are found in sororities as in independent residential groups. This ratio is far greater than in the case of urban girls among whom 47.4 per cent of the independents are in the aggressive group and 57.8 per cent of those in sororities. At the retiring end of the scale the rural groups also show marked differences. Over a fourth of the farm independents are retiring, whereas only 7.1 per cent of the farm sorority members are retiring. This may again represent se-

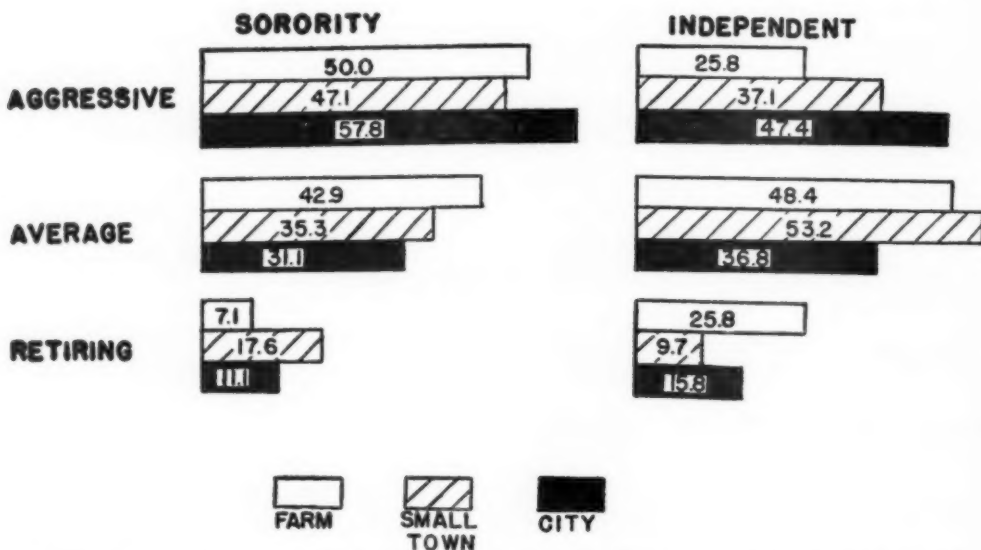


Figure IV. Comparative social adjustment of residential groups by independent and sorority membership as measured by the Bell Inventory.

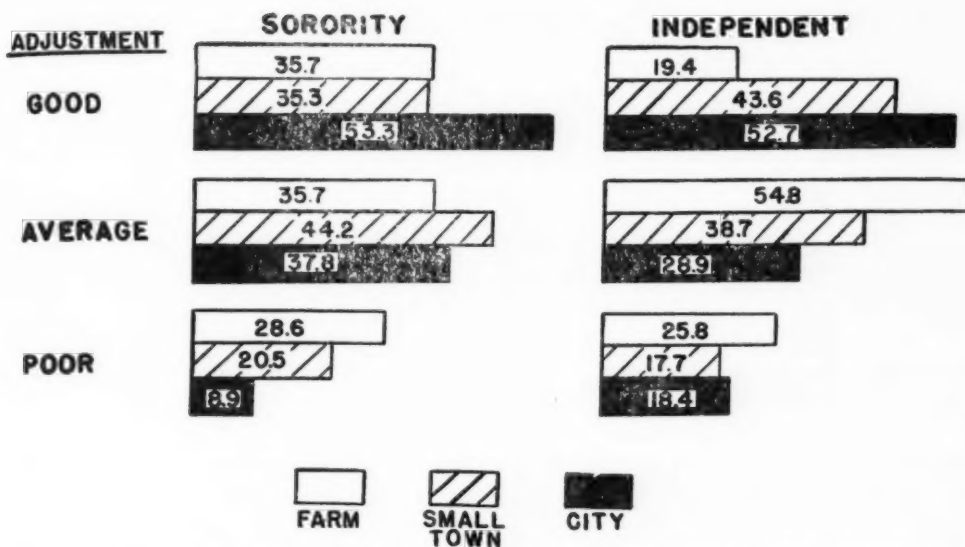


Figure V. Comparative emotional adjustment of residential groups by independent and sorority membership as measured by the Bell Inventory.

lection. On the other hand, it suggests the possibility that sorority membership may have more meaning to a girl reared in a farm environment than one reared in a city environment and be a big step toward her effective adjustment in college.

In the matter of emotional adjustment, sorority status is not quite so indicative, yet a higher proportion of the emotionally well adjusted are found in sororities than in independent groups. (Fig. V)

On the other hand almost as high a proportion of the rural and small town girls who are poorly adjusted emotionally are found in sororities as outside. Of the well adjusted, the proportion with urban backgrounds in sororities and outside is about equal. Of the well adjusted group from small towns, the number outside fraterni-

ties is much greater. But of those from farm communities, the number of well adjusted is much greater in sororities than outside.

Social and Emotional Adjustment in Relation to Intelligence

One might suspect that intelligence is a primary factor in social adjustment in the college situation where intellectual competition is one criterion of success. Such does not, however, seem to be the case. Although more aggressive and average girls are in the high intelligence group than in the low group, a small group of retiring girls, both urban and rural, are in the highest achievement group, and a fairly high proportion of aggressive young women are in the lower group of intelligence scores

TABLE 1. SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF RESIDENTIAL GROUPS ON THE BELL INVENTORY BY INTELLIGENCE AS MEASURED BY THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGICAL EXAMINATION.

Social Adjustment	Residence	Intelligence Rating							
		(high) 75-99	50-74		25-49		(low) 0-24		
		No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
Aggressive	Farm	18	43.9	15	32.6	16	33.3	12	30.8
	Small town	56	53.9	44	44.0	33	40.2	18	32.1
	City	47	46.5	46	43.8	44	50.6	25	54.4
Average	Farm	18	43.9	22	47.8	21	43.8	17	43.6
	Small town	38	36.5	39	39.0	32	39.1	23	41.1
	City	35	34.7	41	39.1	42	48.3	16	34.8
Retiring	Farm	5	12.2	9	19.6	11	22.9	10	25.6
	Small town	10	9.6	17	17.0	17	20.7	15	26.8
	City	17	16.8	14	13.3	8	9.2	6	13.0

(Table 1.) as measured by the Psychological Examinations.⁴ This is especially true of the urban group, whose aggressive traits apparently carry over to a feeling of dominance and success, even when up against great odds from an intellectual standpoint. Of the lowest scoring group (lowest fourth) over half the urban girls are in the aggressive group, of

the small-town group, 32.1 per cent and of the farm group, 30.8 per cent.

In the field of emotional adjustment, little consistent difference is shown between the groups with high and low intelligence. (Table 2.) Of the farm group, 48.8 per cent in the highest fourth on the A. C. E. test are well adjusted emotionally, but only 30.8 per cent of those in the lowest group on intelligence. The emotional adjustment of the small town group improves with intelligence, but more urban girls of low intelligence than

⁴Thurston and Thurston, Psychological Examination (For College Freshmen) American Council of Education, Washington, D. C.

TABLE 2. EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT OF RESIDENTIAL GROUPS ON THE BELL INVENTORY BY INTELLIGENCE RATINGS AS MEASURED BY THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGICAL EXAMINATION.

Emotional Adjustment	Residence	Intelligence Rating							
		(high) 75-99	50-74		25-49		(low) 0-24		
		No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
Good	Farm	20	48.8	12	26.1	14	29.2	12	30.8
	Small town	31	29.8	31	31.0	26	31.7	18	32.1
	City	36	35.6	40	38.1	30	34.5	19	41.3
Average	Farm	12	29.3	23	50.0	19	39.6	17	43.6
	Small town	46	44.2	43	43.0	40	48.8	20	35.8
	City	43	42.6	40	38.1	41	47.1	16	34.8
Poor	Farm	9	21.9	11	23.9	15	31.2	10	25.6
	Small town	27	26.0	26	26.0	16	19.5	18	32.1
	City	22	21.8	25	23.7	16	18.4	11	23.9

high intelligence are well adjusted.

The table suggests that emotional adjustment, in any of the groups, is not primarily a factor of intelligence.⁵

Home Adjustment

On the basis of sociological writings,⁶ one would expect to find farm girls scoring better than the other groups on home adjustment, as it has been assumed that the relative geographical isolation of the farm home, the mutual work enterprise of the farm family and other such factors tend to cement the farm family more firmly, making for improved home adjustments.⁷ The results of the Bell Inventory show only slight differences in the three groups compared, and the very slight differences appearing fall short of statistical significance.

Health Adjustment

It has often been assumed by rural sociologists that farm youth, though they have more health defects than others, probably have a feeling of good health, that like their parents

they are inclined to overlook minor health defects and go about their work undisturbed by the neurotic fears that may disturb nerve-strained urbanites.⁸ The Bell Inventory of health adjustment shows no important differences. A slightly greater proportion of farm girls than of others felt well adjusted, but a slightly greater proportion also felt poorly adjusted.

These findings may not refute the above assumptions, since the tests were given to all girls while in a college situation, rather than to farm girls being tested while enjoying the freedom of an outdoor life.

Values

The Gordon W. Allport and Phillip E. Vernon *A Study of Values*⁹ is presumed to be a scale for measuring the dominant interest of personality. For purpose of comparison here, economic values and aesthetic values are used.

The economic values scale is assumed to measure the practical aspects of one's personality, that is, the orientation of personality around what is conceived to be useful. On

⁵ The conclusion on this point, and on similar data regarding lack of relationship between high intelligence and successful social adjustment, are not new to educators. The comparison of residential groups helps substantiate existing knowledge for new samples.

⁶ Dwight Sanderson, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*. (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1942), p. 216.

⁷ This view has been challenged in recent years. See such studies as the White House Conference on Child Health Protection, *The Adolescent in the Family* (New York: D. Appleton Century Co., 1934), pp. 156-157; Leland H. Stott, "The Relation of Certain Factors in Farm Family Life to Personality Development in Adolescence," Nebraska AESB 106 (Lincoln, 1938).

⁸ Bird T. Baldwin, E.A. Fillmore, and Lora Hadley, *Farm Children*, (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1930), p. 184. Farm Security workers also found this to be true.

⁹ This test is not considered particularly reliable since it is not known what is measured. This may not be a serious matter in this comparison, as it probably measures the same values for the three residential groups. The test is called *A Study of Values* and is published by Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston. Other traits measured by the test are aesthetic, social, political, theoretical and religious values. Because no striking differences on the other traits and values were found, results are not presented.

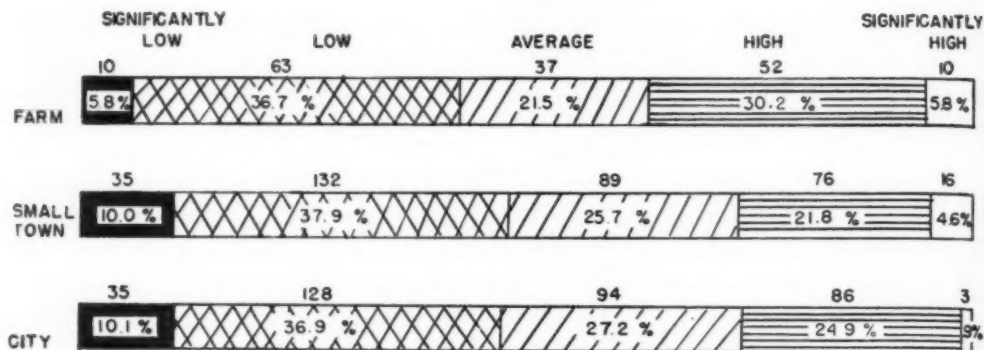


Figure VI. A comparison of farm, small town and city girls in terms of economic values as measured by the Allport-Vernon Values Test.

this scale, differences between the residential groups are shown. (Fig. VI.)

As has been assumed in rural sociological literature,¹⁰ farm young people are more practical minded than are urban young people. A much higher proportion of them approach the high end of the scale in economic values than of urban, or even of town young people, and a much lower proportion fall in the significantly low end of the scale. Difference of this test are not statistically significant, as measured by the Chi-square test.

Aesthetic values measured are those having to do with form and harmony. It has usually been assumed in sociological folklore that rural young people have comparatively little experience with the aesthetic; in fact, that the general pattern of life of farmers being practical rather than artistic would tend to produce a personality

oriented toward particular goals.¹¹ The results (Fig. VII) bear out this assumption. The proportion with significantly low aesthetic values in the farm community is twice as great as in the city community and more than a third greater than in small town areas. At the other extreme those with significantly high aesthetic values are only slightly more than half as great as in small towns and cities. Over a third of the farm young people fall in the low classification, and only slightly more than a fifth are in the high classification as compared to a fourth of small town girls and 29.5 per cent of city girls. Results approach statistical significance.

In conclusion, the results presented are throughout in harmony with the hunches, observations and reasoned conclusions, based on a sociological knowledge of personality forming processes in particular environments. The one striking exception is home adjustment of the farm youth which

¹⁰ For further evidence, see Paul H. Landis, *Rural Life in Process*, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948), Revised Ed. pp. 87-ff.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

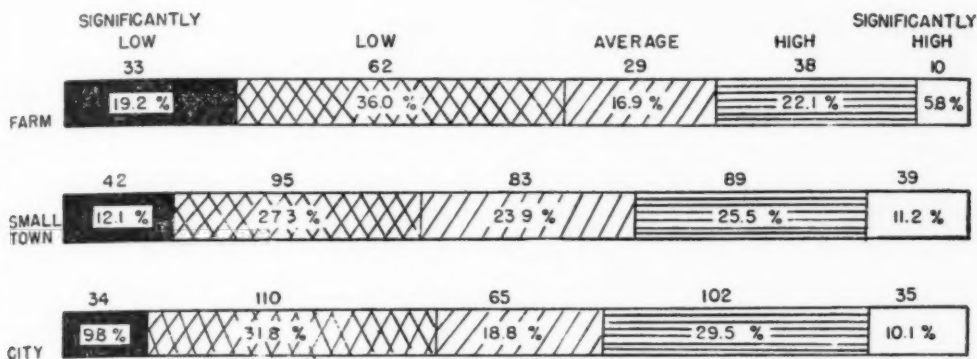


Figure VII. A comparison of farm, small town and city girls in terms of aesthetic values as measured by the Allport-Vernon Values Test.

some writings of the last decade have already challenged. There is nothing in the other traits compared, but not presented here because of space limitations, inconsistent with these findings.

In a time when devices for measurement are becoming increasingly exact, it would seem that sociologists should not only measure the differences in personality produced by different environment, but should follow through with studies of problems and processes of adjustment that are experienced by young people as they shift from isolated environments to more complex social climates. It is likely that they may discover needs for basic revisions in the educational processes to help offset the undesirable effects of conditioning in isolated environments.

Certainly the strongest argument in favor of the consolidated school is that it introduces the young person to a broader range of social contacts and thus provides a natural bridge from the isolated farm home to the larger

society in which young people of today must participate.

It is probably a sound sociological assumption that preparation for living in the great society should be gradual rather than cataclysmic, as it must be for many who emerge from isolated rural communities and make transition to a city or complex high school environment all at one step.

Postscript

Since this paper went to press, A. R. Mangus' study, "Personality Adjustments of Rural and Urban Children," *American Sociological Review*, XIII (October, 1948), pp. 566-575, has appeared. Unlike this study, he finds the personality adjustment of rural children superior to that of urban children. Although different tests were used, the differences probably are explained by the age groups studied. The Mangus samples are of children still in the primary group community; ours are of girls who have left the primary group and who are mak-

ing their adjustments to a more complex environment. Substantiating the results of this paper for the older group is a study, now in process of publication, of L. J. Elias of this Institution covering 6,000 senior high school young people in the State of Washington. His study, which is of the questionnaire type, shows that

urban young people of the high school age group are better adjusted than rural young people. Differences in findings for the various age groups and for different sections of the country suggest the desirability of further research in the field of personality adjustment, a field in which objective data are, to date, very inadequate.

The Significance of Sociology as an Aspect of Australian Educational Improvement

*By Harold C. S. Robinson **

ABSTRACT

The lag in the development of rural sociology in Australia is analyzed in terms of Australia's history, geographical location, and class structure. There are indications that the time is ripe for a more extensive development of sociology and progressive education in Australia. By means of comparing Australia and the United States, the trend for a sociology adapted to Australia is charted.

It would seem that a certain maturity is necessary before a nation or a community becomes sufficiently self-conscious or socially introspective to develop a study of sociology. In its earlier historical phase a people inevitably will be too busily engaged in every-day affairs to worry over much about the whys and wherefores of its social groupings. This theory would, in part at least, account for the comparative absence of sociological studies in Australia, a matter commented upon very recently by Dr. K. C. Cunningham, Director of the Australian Council for Education Research. He writes:

It is generally conceded that the (Australian) universities are not so well developed as they might be in social sciences. Among the universities there is one professorship each in anthropology, in public administration, in political science and philosophy, in political science and history and in geography; three each in psychology and in education; and none in sociology. Economics and history are the only social studies for which full chairs are found at all universities. This relative weakness is unfortunate for a country which faces peculiar socio-economic problems in rural settlement, regional development, transportation and communication, racial assimilation and migration. In the last fifty years, hundreds if

* Education Department, Victoria, Australia.

¹ K. C. Cunningham, *Education in Australia*, Harpers, California.
² H. C. Cunningham, *Population* (Lexington, Mass.)

not thousands of capable young Australians have studied the languages of ancient Greece or Rome, but next to none have been trained to study and record the life of the Australian aboriginal whose ancient culture was passing away forever. Nothing could more dramatically illustrate the preoccupations with the past, the neglect of local material and the lack of interest in sociological studies.¹

The relative importance attached to the study of sociology in American education makes an interesting comparative study and an Australian student will be inclined to seek further reasons for the difference. "A changing society is more conscious of a need for education than a fixed society"² and an analysis of representative groups will show that this is so. It is necessary also to realize that there are at least two sets of circumstances which can cause societal fixation, one being present when a nation is old, settled and culturally stagnant, the other when it is particularly prosperous, well-protected and seemingly problem free. Until recent years the average Australian regarded his national situation in this latter way and the factors outlined below will help explain how the country seemed to have so very few problems when compared, say, to the United States.

¹ K. C. Cunningham, *Cultural Aspects: Education*, in "Australia" Edited by C. Harsley Graffan. (Berkeley: University of California, 1937) p. 349.

² Howard W. Beers, *Mobility of Rural Population*, Kentucky AES Bulletin 505 (Lexington, 1947).

In order to understand the remarkable complacency of the Australian outlook during what is now known as the "honeymoon" era of the country's history it is necessary to realize, first of all, that the people racially were almost all of British stock and that immigration laws had long excluded coloured persons and others who seemed likely to upset the balance of the community. Another important factor was that Australia had never known the constitutional trials and stresses which, in the United States, had produced two great internal wars. Developing as a part of England's second, (and much more carefully treated) empire, the Australian colonies had progressed smoothly and rapidly towards political and economic freedom; self government and federation came almost for the asking and were delivered easily by acts of the British parliament.

In 1931 the Statute of Westminster rendered the question of complete independence even more academic than previously while the Ottawa trade agreements were designed to give economic benefits to all parties within the British Commonwealth. Within Australia, strikes and other industrial troubles have been no less frequent than in other "Western" countries generally but it has always been possible to see them, there, as part of a progressive working-class movement towards political power and economic security—both now largely secured.

As a result of the influence of English chartism and the parliamentary

reform movement of one hundred years ago, Australia's political heritage includes a considerable skill in representative government and a democratic belief—somewhat naive, but by no means wholly idle—that a country's problem can be solved by legislation. Resulting from the establishment of political democracy and the emergence of a vigorous working class movement, a great deal of the legislation passed in Australia during the last eighty years has been directed towards social betterment, planned production, industrial regulation and government ownership of big utilities and services. These have largely offset the comparative lack of great national wealth and what, in other lands, has often been the harsher features of large scale, privately controlled, industrial enterprise.

Finally, very brief mention must be made of one aspect of the Australian situation which should have, but did not, occasioned concern—viz. the geographic reality of proximity to Asia. Yet the Australian defense situation occasioned no worries for the British fleets policed the seas, the friendly Dutch were to the north and, with the exception of Japan, the neighbouring Asiatic countries were little more than economic colonies of the West—at least this was how it seemed. The following passage concerning China could be taken to cover Australia's attitude to the Far East generally.

Chinese did not have either the power or the knowledge to decide the most important things affecting their own country; that the things which really mattered were the things done to China . . . by the great powers.³

The factors set out in the above paragraph are by no means exhaustive but they do, perhaps, offer some explanation why Australians, a young and in many ways vigorous people, have remained relatively unconcerned and have not been very conscious of a need for a programme of progressive education. There has been no urge felt, for instance, for that understanding of social phenomena and problems which sociological studies help to give. Briefly, it may be said that, due to a temporal nearness to the old European background, to a seemingly security and to a comparatively problem-free and fixed social-cultural pattern, Australian standards, loyalties and ideas have been old-world rather than antipodean, static rather than progressive and fixed rather than changing so that education consequently has been comparatively unimaginative, imitative and altogether too much concerned with Old World culture to the neglect of New World realities. At every level of education, primary, secondary and tertiary, Australian students are even yet more likely to be presented with courses involving a study of the Greek city state, the Roman villa, or

For a century it has been accepted without question that the

³ O. and E. Lattimore, *China, A Short History* (New York: W. Norton Company, 1947), p. 149.

the feudal manor—than with the sociology of rural or urban Australia. This has been described, exaggerated perhaps, as a “national drift into fantasy. The absurd unreality of Australian education which had tormented the young with the chronology of the English kings while starving them for information about their own system of government and the social institutions and peoples of neighbouring countries.”⁴

Yet there are now many signs that this condition will not persist much longer. During the past decade the great changes which have taken place in world politics have had repercussions in the thoughts and opinions of many Australians; it being hardly possible to experience six years of war, a narrow escape from invasion, a great falling away of English protective might, a rearrangement of global power between two nations which border the Pacific and an upsurge of oriental nationalism, without a change of outlook and a more acute understanding of what truly comprises Australian reality. It is now possible to see clearly, as never before, the necessity for analyzing events, planning for the wisest possible development and acting in the most effective way. Such a policy of planned change involves many educational adjustments and among these will be the development of study courses in sociology. For, in the long run, the prosperity, safety, happiness and even the true morality of the

people of Australia will depend upon their understanding of themselves and upon their good sense and efficiency in making their proper adjustments to their environment and their capacity to develop and use their resources—both the human and the material. Indeed, without some sociological content to make education dynamic and morally directed it will be difficult for people to respond, as they should, to the words of wisdom given in the days of old—to love one's neighbour and to know one's self.

The world offers a country such as Australia many constructive examples of communities which, at national, regional and local levels, have acted intelligently and effectively in coping with problems so that opportunities and resources are used to the best advantage. One purpose of the writer's present visit to the United States is to assemble constructive and applicable educational ideas to aid in the reformations of policy which are now portending in Australia; such examples as resource-use education, rural sociology and the great practical project of T.V.A.—to mention only a few — are significant American achievements containing valuable comparative lessons concerning what may be learned and, with modifications, applied to the Australian situation. This situation is one which now needs scientific analysis in the light of the new realities, and long-range planning for “it is obvious that Australia has educational problems broadly similar to those of other countries, but these assume special as-

⁴B. Penton, *Advance Australia, Where?* (London: Cassel Company, 1943), p. 51.

pects in the light of historical, geographical economic and political background. The chief hope for the future lies in the general heart-searching which the war years brought . . . and in the prospect of much greater contact with developments overseas."⁵

When a study of special features in one country is made for the purpose of applying the lessons learned to the situation in another land, it is important that there should be an understanding of the differences in national and community backgrounds so that what is recommended will be suitable and in keeping with different conditions; constructive learning by the comparative method is a valuable and valid way to progress but mere imitation without regard for circumstances is foolish and is likely to produce wasteful and even dangerous results.

The several points of comparison which are now to be outlined are offered as examples of characteristic differences existing between the two countries and, as such, are basic to the proper presentation of those recommendations in the sphere of educational sociology with which this paper is principally concerned.

1. Although the areas of the United States and Australia are approximately the same (about 3,000,000 square miles) the former has a population of 138 millions to the latter's 8 millions—a ratio of 17:1. This great dissimilarity is further illustrated by a comparison of Vic-

toria, the smallest Australian mainland state, yet the most densely populated, with Kentucky. Although the Australian state is greater in area in the ratio of 3:2, its population is smaller in the ratio of 2:3. In the most general terms it may be said that the Australian continent is very sparsely settled in most areas and even in those regions where the greatest concentrations occur,—the east, the south-east and the south-west—the population is much less dense than it is in most districts of the United States.

2. The settlement of the United States has been characterized by a continuous inflow of population over three centuries, in fact until recent times an incoming movement of people has been almost a permanent feature of the country's development. Moreover, although predominantly European, the migrants entering the United States have represented, especially during the past 100 years, almost every race and nationality. In contrast to this the inflow of population, in the case of Australia, has during the one hundred and sixty years since settlement, been slight and irregular, except for the huge influx which took place during the gold-rush era (1850-1865), because strict immigration laws and a White-Australia policy have tended to exclude non-European and, to a lesser extent non-British peoples, with the result that the population

⁵ Cunningham, *op. cit.* p. 355.

is racially and culturally homogeneous.

3. Settlement in America began along the Atlantic seaboard and has moved continuously from east to west across the continent following an ever shifting frontier which has advanced through region after region of fertile territory—a seemingly exhaustless expanse of good farming land, and blessed with the great additional wealth of minerals, forests and wildlife. The expanding frontier theory of Frederick Jackson Turner with its political, psychological and sociological implications has a limited application only to Australia where settlement very quickly covered all the regions suitable for sheep grazing, once the initial difficulty of breaking through mountain ranges and official disapproval had been overcome. But territorially the first great frontier was the last for neither the gold miners nor the small farmers who came in their turn, later, went even to the limits of the already occupied, poor-pastoral territory. Only in a few isolated places has mineral wealth—as at Mt. Isa and Broken Hill—enabled settlement beyond the pastoral fringe. Instead of pioneers pushing on to new frontiers, there was, in Australia, a turning back; instead of a finding of new lands there was the demand that that those already possessed be shared, instead of individuals striking out to build industrial empires and amass wealth and power in the way

that James J. Hill and John P. Morgan did, men tended to come together in political associations to obtain what they held to be their rights and there was organized, on a national scale, the cooperative community and the planned economy. In one sense this aspect of Australian development has been a kind of political pioneering and the frontier is ideological and social rather than territorial.

4. The visitor to America cannot but be impressed by the country's tremendous natural wealth and resources, its great areas of fertile soil, the quantities and varieties of minerals, fuels and power sources; also impressive as valuable natural assets are the high snow carrying mountains, the general temperate climate, the great lakes and widespread river systems. Its possession of great, basic advantages makes America not a nation in the old sense of the term but a great global power and its people—to whom much credit must go for developing and utilizing the latent wealth—are able to enjoy a high standard of living, good public services and fine institutions. In comparison to America, Australia is a poor country with natural wealth restricted and perhaps two-thirds of the land desert or of marginal utility; also the rainfall is low and the soil deficient while the inland lakes and watercourses are dry for most of the year and even the greatest river system barely reaches the sea. Off-

hand, the writer cannot think of even one native plant or animal which has an economic value to compare with the turkey, the buffalo, maize or tobacco. In consequence of these conditions the development in Australia of conditions capable of supporting a much greater population are matters which require planning by authorities rather than enterprise by individuals.

5. A surprising contrast between the United States system of local government and that of Australia is to be explained largely by the different backgrounds and conditions of settlement. In America the frontier tradition, the suspicion of government and the difficulty of travel in the early days of settlement produced a decentralized community organization which is reflected in a pattern of strong local government, a great deal of elected, non-professional administration and an educational system which is very largely based upon local administration and control. The situation which prevails in Australia is almost the opposite to that described above for local government is extremely weak, being confined to such matters as roads and bridges; administration is in the hands of permanent, professional public officers who are specialists in their fields and services such as education and law-enforcement are directed by the central state governments.

6. A number of factors in American

history and circumstances have combined to produce in the people of the United States certain qualities of enterprise, restlessness and accomplishment; in a country of unrivalled resources and opportunity there have been rich rewards waiting those who could plan with intelligence and act with decision. In this we have one of the great bases of American democracy and an explanation of some of the anomalies of that democracy. The great problem of American life today is, perhaps, the reconciliation of political freedom and the economy based on individual enterprise. Again the conditions prevailing in Australia are different for there, although the people have not lacked initiative and energy, there has not been the same scope, inclination or public approval of ambition and fortune building. Many local authors have written caustically about the Australian characteristic of decrying the outstanding personality and regarding with suspicion the individual who seems to be endeavouring to rise above his fellows. The characteristic is understandable as a defensive tactic of the working class in its struggle against the development of inequality and rugged individualism fifty years ago. Today there is a new outlook needed in this regard and a new concept of the place of the individual in a democratic society. In this regard the magnificent contribution of John Dewey's philosophy of instrumental experimental-

ism is amazingly pertinent to the situation—far more so than to the American as I am able to see it.

These half-dozen or so comparative factors of American and Australian social problems are outlined here in order to aid the writer in his effort to evaluate, select and perhaps apply desirable features of American education to the Australian system. This paper will conclude with the listing of a number of recommendations and with each there will be a short explanation. The recommendations in this paper, of course, are concerned with sociological aspects of education rather than with administrative or purely pedagogical ones.

a. *Types of Schools.* In two particulars at least American schools are, by considered policy, different from those prevailing in most other parts of the world, i.e. they are co-educational and multipurpose at the secondary level. Such an organization is very suitable for the rural community or the small town and I think such schools should be established increasingly in similar Australian situations although there is no likelihood that the co-educational aspect will be developed to the degree that it is in America. The great argument advanced in favour of the co-educational multi-purpose school is that it provides the environment in which the free natural personality can best develop. With this I agree and I think, also, that education is on a better democratic basis in such schools. However, it must be admitted that

there are strong counter reasons which favour, especially for large cities, the single sex, specializing, secondary school and I believe that Australia will continue to favour them for reasons of economy and efficiency.

b. *Rural Education.* The centralized control of Australian education has been of great benefit to the people of remote areas for "in proportion to its population Australia has a bigger problem of educating children living in sparsely populated areas than has any other country in the world. At least two-thirds of its schools employ only one teacher, though they serve only 14 per cent of the total school population. . . . The six state authorities have been given the responsibility of building all schools and training and appointing all teachers. Particular attention is paid in teachers colleges to training in the best methods of running one-teacher schools. . . . This development of technique and the system of correspondence instruction for still more scattered pupils represents Australia's two main contributions to educational method."^a

^a Acknowledgement too should be made of the improved rural education offered in the area schools of Tasmania, the good though limited treatment of rural sociology in the College of Agriculture at the University of Melbourne, the excellent reports on rural planning compiled by the Rural Reconstruction Commission of the Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction at Canberra and the books of individual scholars. Of the latter, *Country Towns of Victoria* by A. J. and J. J. McIntyre and Alan J. Holt's *Wheat Farms of Victoria* are most likely to be found in American libraries.

It may be said that, generally, rural primary education is not inferior to that obtainable in the towns but it is at the secondary and tertiary levels that country children are handicapped, for their access to educational centers is likely to be difficult and the courses offered, even if not academic, are likely to be of little use for country purposes. The universities in particular are isolated from rural interests while the state agricultural colleges, which are comparable to junior colleges in the United States are too few. At the present time in Australia the nation is losing a great fraction of its best talent and intelligence because of the lack of post-primary educational opportunity in rural areas. In the opinion of the writer this problem needs to be approached imaginatively, and he has been particularly impressed by the numbers of rural students attending the University of Kentucky and the unique educational opportunity offered at Berea College to young people from the mountain areas. In his opinion the establishment in each Inspectorial District in Australia of a Country College of this type would be a most progressive move, giving educational uplift to rural areas, opportunity to young people and a selection of intelligence, now lost, for the community.

- c. Dr. Edmund deS. Brunner, Professor in charge of Rural Sociology, Columbia University, New York,

visited Australia ten years ago and his report "Rural Australia and New Zealand" contains the following statements: "Agricultural extension is not developed to any great extent in Australia" and "Unfortunately there is no rural sociology taught in the agricultural colleges and state universities of Australia." The writer's own observations of agricultural extension and rural sociology in America convince him that the lack of these in Australian education is serious and should be remedied without delay. Programmes and courses in these fields would be most effective in conjunction with colleges of the type suggested in the previous paragraph.

- d. In two essential particulars educational control and administration in Australia differs radically from the accepted American method. In the first place the local school committee has no effective voice in regard to policy making or management and in the second place the District Inspector, who is the equivalent of the American County Superintendent, is entirely the representative of the central State Education Department. (Also it is important to understand that all teacher training is "in-service.") The result of this is that, in return for the money spent, there is a very generous outcome of efficiency, economy and uniformity. There are also quite a number of less desirable results such as a tendency toward formalized teaching, inap-

appropriate subject matter, authoritarian control and community disinterest. The Education Departments have recognized the existence of these defects and have attempted to effect reforms; however, it would seem that a measure of administrative readjustment is now due and as the result of observations in America the writer suggests, (1) that the inspectorial districts be increased in number and reduced in size; (2) that in each district inspectorate a helping-teacher be placed to aid teachers with special problems; (3) that local governments enter the province of education by being empowered and required to maintain the grounds and approaches to schools (a task which they could well carry out) and to make, on a per capita plus equalization basis, small annual grants to school committees within their districts; (4)

with local, state and community money now at its disposal, budgeting for school improvements would become an important task of the local school committee and would allow it a controlling voice in certain aspects of school policy. Basic policy, however, would still be the responsibility of the state department, the district inspector and the teacher.

These suggestions, although by no means exhaustive, do touch some of the most important aspects of needed educational reform in Australia; the writer's survey of the American system of education has provided him with many valuable comparative ideas and suggestions for progress. It should be possible in Australia, while retaining the valued qualities of educational equality and efficiency to introduce carefully considered reforms which have proved their worth in America.

Religious Schism in the Methodist Church: A Sociological Analysis of the Pine Grove Case

By Gus Tubeville †

ABSTRACT

Analysis of the Pine Grove Case shows the relationship between religious schisms and social conflict within a community. The end result, sociological speaking, is a loss of community cooperative activity and the slowing down of attempts at social progress.

The Pine Grove Case is important in the annals of Methodism since, by its decision, the legality of the union

of the three major branches of the Methodist Church in 1939 was confirmed. It is important to sociologists because many factors in this con-

† University of Minnesota.

troversy demonstrate how the institution of religion may be used as a theater in which to act out conflicts arising from other issues. It is important to lay people for it concerns, in a secular way, what they consider to be one of their most sacred aspects of life. The emphasis in the present analysis, however, will be upon sociological factors.¹

Schisms in the Methodist Church. It seems that almost all religious bodies have behind them a history of internal dissension and breaks, and Methodism is no exception. One of the earliest splits in American Methodism occurred in 1791 when one William Hammett, an Englishman, led a group out of the church because he did not feel that Wesley was being shown the proper respect in this country. This group called themselves "Primitive Methodists," but their existence was short-lived inasmuch as the movement ceased upon the death of Hammett in 1803.²

The following year (1792) a second break struck the Methodist Church when the Republican Methodist Church was founded by James O'Kelly. It was his thesis that since a minister could be arbitrarily assigned anywhere by the bishop, the church had become dictatorial. His organiza-

tion, however, did not last long, and many of those who left with him later returned to the Methodist Church.

The idea of democracy, which was so strong during the decades shortly before and after 1800, played havoc with Methodism when a number of Methodist preachers attempted to reduce the power of the episcopacy. They favored the election of presiding elders (district superintendents), but for their efforts, a number of them were expelled by the church. As a result, other ministers withdrew from the church, and in conjunction with the expelled ministers, founded in 1830 the Methodist Protestant Church. At that time it had eighty-three preachers and about 5,000 members. It grew rather steadily, especially in the East, and by 1939 had nearly 200,000 members.

The question of slavery caused the greatest of all schisms in the Methodist Church. Bishop James Osgood Andrew of Georgia married a woman who owned slaves, and in addition had inherited some in his own right. This news created much bickering in the North where abolitionist sentiment was strong, and a resolution was presented at the General Conference of 1844 asking for the removal from office of Bishop Andrew. This resolution was debated for eleven days before Stephen Olin, president of Wesleyan University in Connecticut and a former teacher in the South who understood both sides of the situation, made it clear that what was needed was to separate the Church, with a

¹ The writer wishes to acknowledge the advice and encouragement of Professor Vernon J. Parenton of Louisiana State University in this study.

² Much of the information in this section on schisms in the Methodist Church is taken from Edward D. Staples, "Methodist Churches of the World," *The Encyclopedia Americana*, (New York: Americana Corporation, 1942), XVIII, 722-724.

minimum of unpleasantness, into two sections. A chosen committee drafted a Plan of Separation which was adopted by the General Conference by a vote of 135 to 15. This plan was acceptable to the Southern conferences but was opposed by Northern groups. The Supreme Court of the United States, however, finally settled the issue in favor of the South. The name chosen by the Southerners for their branch of Methodism was "Methodist Episcopal Church, South."

Reconciliation. Almost immediately after the close of the Civil War, efforts were instituted to reunite the major branches of the Methodist Church, but final success did not come until 1939. Three years previously, though, the Methodist Episcopal Church (the Northern branch of Methodism) and the Methodist Protestant Church, acting through their conferences, voted for a Plan of Union. This left the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, as being the only major branch of Methodism out of the fold.³

In 1937, the members of the various annual conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, voted on the Plan of Union mentioned above, and out of a total vote of 8,897, those in favor of the Plan numbered 7,577

whereas 1,247 were in opposition to it. Then in April of 1938, a general conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, was held in Birmingham, Alabama, and this conference voted for the Plan of Union by a vote of 434 to 26. Unification was culminated in April, 1939, when a Uniting Conference was held in Kansas City, Missouri, which succeeded in bringing together the Methodist Episcopal Church, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Protestant Church. These churches, of course, represented the three major Methodist bodies. The name chosen for the church resulting from this merger was simply the "Methodist Church," and its membership in 1939 was 7,948,373. The discipline of this new church was that which had been held throughout the years by the three churches and which had, of course, John Wesley for its origin.

Protest. Although Unification⁴ was largely hailed as a great forward step by the Methodists, there were a few dissenters. Perhaps nowhere was this dissension more pronounced than in Turbeville, South Carolina, the site of the new well-known Pine Grove Church. The conflict in Turbeville may be better understood if some of the social and cultural background of the community is given.

⁴Using the terminology common in the Pine Grove community, in this paper the merger of the major branches of the Methodist Churches will be spoken of as "Unification," and those who favor it as "Unificationists." Those who are opposed to it are referred to as "Antis."

³The information on procedure followed in Unification is taken largely from the *Transcript of Record in the Pine Grove Methodist Church Case* filed in the South Carolina Supreme Court, 1939-1940. The writer is indebted to Henry R. Sims, President of Winthrop College at Rock Hill, South Carolina, who was one of the attorneys in this case, for his kindness in lending his copy of the *Transcript* to the author.

The Turbeville community had in 1945 a population of 653, of whom 150 were Negroes. The focal point of the community is a village by the same name whose population for the same year consisted of 215 whites and twenty-seven Negroes. The inhabitants have, for the most part, been traditionally Methodists, and for a living, depend largely upon crops of tobacco and cotton. For farm people they have been moderately prosperous during the last seven or eight years, but during the depression there were dark days for most of the residents. Conditions were such, in fact, that some of the families found it necessary to move elsewhere in an attempt to better their economic condition.

As is natural in almost any social situation, some people play a more prominent part than others in securing conveniences and improvements for the group as a whole. In Turbeville, where such was the case, the Summerville⁵ family had been instrumental in getting a church, school, and post office for the community. As other families, chiefly the Browns, Newberrys, and Bettors, began to come into the community, some of them began to resent the dominant role being played by the Summervilles. They reasoned, and probably correctly, that they had representatives fully as capable as the Summervilles, and saw no reason why they should not be community leaders. The Summervilles were, of course, reluc-

tant to relinquish their rather coveted position in the community. Neither side showed much inclination to cooperate with the other, and as a result, on almost any debatable issue that would arise, the Summervilles and their followers could be found on one side, and the Browns, Newberrys, and Bettors on the other.

When the question of Unification was brought up in Turbeville at Pine Grove Church, the Summervilles seemed to think that it was a forward step in the advancement of Methodism. Hence, they supported it. On the other hand, the Browns, *et. al.*, apparently upon seeing the stand of the Summervilles, came out vociferously against it. They argued, with support from other conservative elements in the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, that Unification meant that Negroes would be going to the same churches as whites; further, that the "Yankees" were using it as a scheme to take over Southern church property; and finally that it involved a renunciation of the Virgin Birth, Resurrection, and other sacred dogma. Speaking of these claims, one well-informed member of the community told the writer that though almost everyone in Turbeville had taken definite sides in the controversy, probably not more than four or five of them had any definite idea concerning what Unification really meant.

It seems rather strange that the new leadership in the community was the one resisting change since usually it is thought that the old establish-

⁵ Throughout this paper, fictitious names are assigned to the families living in Turbeville.

ed leadership plays this role. This appears even more peculiar when it is realized that the new developing leadership consists of a younger group of people than the old, but perhaps one factor in the conservatism of the former is that its members tend to be better off financially than the latter. Concerning education, it is questionable whether one group is more advantaged than the other. Thus it would seem that the appeal of the new group was largely a negative one, being against whatever the old group favored. This thesis is supported by the fact that the stand on unification followed largely along previous line of cleavage in the community.

Another confusing element was the fact that the preacher assigned to the Pine Grove Church at the time Unification was being debated reportedly was against the Merger at first. When he saw that Unification was going to be accomplished, he accepted the fact and changed his own position. This made for an even more chaotic condition, and after Unification was approved at the Birmingham meeting in 1938, the conflict in Turbeville burst into the open.

On November 8, 1938, when it was time to appoint a new pastor to the Turbeville-Olanta Circuit,⁶ the Board

⁶It should be pointed out that there are three churches in this Circuit: Pine Grove, Nazareth, and St. John's. Even though the preacher is in charge of all three churches, the fact that the parsonage was at Turbeville naturally caused him to spend most of his time at the latter place. Strangely enough there was hardly any feeling against Unification in the other two churches that compared with that found at Pine Grove Church.

of Stewards of Pine Grove Church wrote to Bishop Clare Purcell at the Hartsville, South Carolina, Conference explaining that a majority of the members of Pine Grove Church would neither accept or support a preacher assigned by the Conference, and requesting that the Conference, not send a preacher to that church. This letter was, of course, ignored, and L. D. B. Williams was sent to the Turbeville-Olanta Circuit. Mr. Williams started preaching in Turbeville about the first of December of that year, and on the first Sunday that he was there the "Antis" began holding their services at a different time from those of the regularly scheduled services. For a minister the dissident group had to employ almost any kind of preacher they could find, and of course the quality of this type preacher was subject to great variation.

Numerically speaking, the "Antis" had almost three times the attendance at their services as did the "Unificationists" (about 150 for the former and about fifty for the latter). One reason to account for this large differential in attendance is that many people from other communities who were against Unification would come to worship with the Turbeville group. The chief reason, though, was that the Browns, Newberrys, and Bettors had a larger following in the community than did the Summervilles.

Even though the atmosphere was very tense between the two groups, no actual clashes occurred. Each seemed to be willing to let the other

worship as he pleased with no interference. This situation, however, was too ideal to continue. In this connection Mr. Williams (the new Pine Grove preacher) is quoted as he testified at the *Pine Grove Methodist Church Case* (pp. 363-364) :

... Then there came a request we hurry up the League on one Sunday evening in order that they might have preaching. We had been teaching a mission study class and had agreed that we would not have League service on Sunday evening, but would conclude our mission study on this particular evening. The president of the League was asked by one of the dissidents that we hurry the League service on that evening in order that they, the dissidents, might have preaching. I told the president to say to them that we were concluding that Sunday evening our mission study which would take us two hours, and we could not hurry through. We anticipated nothing further. But when we went over that evening at the time for the League to begin our class, in about forty-five minutes a group came around the church and opened the door; they shut it. They talked on the outside which was considerably annoying, and after a while they came in, not all together, but quite a space between groups. Some went in the choir and some in the auditorium, and it was so annoying that the teacher had to abandon teaching work, so we dismissed our class and they had their service. ...

This was but an indication that things were fast reaching a climax.

Some of the leaders of the "Antis" went to Mr. Williams and asked him to call a church conference so as to determine how the majority of the membership of Pine Grove Church felt in regard to Unification. Since Mr. Williams well knew how the majority felt, and since he also knew that Unification was an accomplished fact and that he could do nothing about it even if he were so inclined, he refused to call the requested conference. The "Antis," however, were not be pushed aside so easily, so on April 13, 1939, they posted notices, signed by the church stewards, to the effect that a conference would be held on April 23rd to discuss measures to be taken in regard to Unification. Out of this meeting, which naturally was attended only by "Antis," came a bombshell which was to mark the beginning of extreme bitterness on the part of each side toward the other. Of the five trustees of Pine Grove Church, three were sympathetic to the "Anti" cause, and two were adherents of Unification. The three dissident trustees, acting at the request of the "Anti" Conference, deeded the Pine Grove Church property to three of its own members for the sum of \$5.00 with the provision that the latter were to hold the property in trust for the benefit of the members of Pine Grove Methodist Episcopal Church, South. They then sent a letter to Mr. Williams which said in part:

... we are hereby serving notice that we, the duly authorized Trustees of Pine Grove Method-

ist Episcopal Church, South, are assuming control and direction of said Church property, and inasmuch as, according to the public press, the Unification of the three branches of the Methodist Church will have been consummated on May 10, 1939, you are hereby strictly forbidden to use the above-named church property for any purpose as a representative of the Unified Church, or as such representative to trespass on said church property. . . .

After this letter had been sent to Mr. Williams, a group of "Antis" went to the homes of many of the "Unificationists," and told the residents that on the next Sunday the Southern Methodists were going to hold their worship services at the time usually reserved for the loyal church group. Some of the people who were visited became alarmed because they feared physical violence would take place when two different groups tried to worship at the same place at the same time. Consequently they went to Mr. Williams to see what could be done to avoid any open conflict. The latter went to see District Superintendent C. C. Derrick, and in turn, both Mr. Williams and Mr. Derrick went to Cheraw to see Bishop Purcell. Finally, these three got in contact with Henry R. Sims, a lawyer who was in Columbia, and then it was decided to draw up an injunction forbidding the dissident group from interfering in any way with the regularly scheduled worship service of the Methodist Church although it did

not forbid them from using the church at other hours.

This was the beginning of a long legal battle with the Methodist Church on one side and the self-styled Southern Methodists on the other. On May 25, 1939, the *Pine Grove Case* was filed in the Clarendon County Circuit Court, and the Methodist Church asked that the court decide that the Methodist Church is the successor of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and as such owns the property of Pine Grove Church; that the deed whereby three of the Church trustees deeded the church property to three members of the dissident group be declared null and void; that the defendants be prohibited from interfering with the Church property; that the name, "Methodist Episcopal Church, South," be declared to belong to the Methodist Church, thus preventing the dissident group from using that name or any name similar to it; and finally that the defendants be made to pay for the court costs. In turn, the defendants asked, among other things, that the court decide that the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, continues to exist; that the Plan of Union was not legally adopted; that the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, was not represented at the Uniting Conference at Kansas City in 1939; that the deed made out by the church trustees deeding the property to three of their members be declared valid; that agencies of the Merged Church, if it exists, be prohibited from interfering with the property of Pine Grove Church and

from attempting to hold services there; and finally that the plaintiffs bear the court costs.

The judge of the Clarendon County Circuit Court was William H. Grimball, and he appointed the Honorable Nathan B. Barnwell, an attorney from Charleston and an Episcopalian, as special referee to hear the testimony and report back his findings. Apparently sensing the importance of this case, the Methodist Church engaged six very able lawyers to represent its side, these lawyers being Walter McElreath of Atlanta, Georgia; J. Morgan Stevens of Jackson, Mississippi; Orville A. Park of Macon, Georgia; R. T. Jaynes of Walhalla, South Carolina; R. E. Babb of Laurens, South Carolina; and Henry R. Sims of Orangeburg, South Carolina. The less financially able dissidents engaged only two lawyers, those being Collins Denny, Jr. of Richmond, Virginia, who was a son of Bishop Collins Denny, the only bishop in the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, who refused to support Unification; and Clint T. Graydon of Columbia, South Carolina. The evidence introduced and the testimony taken in this case filled 683 pages, and among those who testified were three bishops, *viz.*, Collins Denny who testified for the defendants, and John M. Moore and Clare Purcell who testified for the plaintiffs.

In due time, Judge Barnwell decided every point in favor of the Methodist Church except the exclusive right to the name "Methodist Episcopal Church, South." Judge Grim-

ball accepted Judge Barnwell's decision in its entirety, and when the Supreme Court of South Carolina was called upon to review the case, did likewise. The Methodist Church, however, would not be satisfied with anything short of a full victory, so the eight bishops of the Southeastern Jurisdictional Conference, under the instructions of the Uniting Conference, filed case on June 1, 1940.

... in the United States District court of the Eastern District of South Carolina before Judge Lumpkin. He decided that in view of a similar case being in the State courts his court was without jurisdiction, but he expressed the opinion on the issues that was favorable to the church. An appeal from his decision was taken to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, and it reversed Judge Lumpkin and declared his court did have jurisdiction. The opposition then went to the Supreme Court of the United States with a petition for 'certiorari.' That court refused to grant the writ of 'certiorari.' The case then came back to the District Court.

In the meantime Judge Lumpkin had been appointed United States Senator and had died. Judge Timmerman was on the bench. On opening the case he announced that he had already studied it, that he agreed with the opinion of the State Supreme court of South Carolina, the same as Judge Barnwell's, and that he would so decide unless convinced to the contrary. Our counsel built up the case for an appeal to the Circuit Court. Judge Timmerman's decision was finally as he had indicated. The appeal went to

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the United States Circuit Court of Appeals at Charlotte, composed of Judges Parker, Dobie, and Northcutt. Judge Timmerman was reversed on the name, and the Court of Appeals decreed the union completely valid and awarded the name to The Methodist Church. Judge Parker delivered the decision. The anti-unificationists announced authoritatively that they would make no appeal to the United States Supreme Court. That closes the case.

This has been a great legal battle extending through five years, the greatest, the lawyers declare, in which they have ever engaged.⁷

This final decision of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals at Charlotte, North Carolina, was not rendered until November 13, 1944.

Consequences. The general result of this "religious" conflict has been to cause considerable social upheaval in Turbeville. Lines of cleavage between the two principal groups in the community have been more sharply drawn, and malicious gossip has been rampant. There have been claims and counter-claims made by the groups, few of which have been of a strictly religious nature. Neither side has seemed content to allow the other to worship as it pleases, but rather they have seen fit to ridicule each other.

Probably one of the most unfortunate aspects of the entire schism has been the effect that it has had upon

some of the families in the communities. In spite of the rivalry between the Summervilles on the one side and the Browns, Newberrys, and Bettors on the other, there has been intermarriage between them. Yet, in a number of cases, connubial ties have not been so strong as early loyalties, and there are or have been cases of the wife being on one side of the conflict and the husband on the other. There have been other instances in which brothers and sisters hold opposing points of view with resulting hard feelings.

Naturally any social progress in the community has been almost impossible because of the constant bickering and refusal to cooperate. School board elections have at times been bitterly contested, and for a time accusations were frequently made that teachers were selected upon the basis of their views toward Unification. This of course has been demoralizing to students, and there have been rumors of actual fist fights occurring among the pupils on the subject of the merger.

Not the least of the effects of the controversy have been the individual breakdowns. It is reported that one woman in the community went insane (and later died) because her husband and children deserted the Methodist Church in opposition to her wishes. Three of the community's most prominent and civic minded citizens died of brain hemorrhages during the height of the quarrel, and it is popularly supposed that intense worry over the church situation led to the calamities. Finally, a native son who

⁷ Bishop John M. Moore, "Methodist UNION Completely Confirmed," *The Christian Advocate*, CXX (October 18, 1945), 1212.

left Turbeville to become one of the most outstanding ministers in the history of South Carolina Methodism passed away of a heart attack while the fight continued unabated. It so happens that the father of this preacher was one of the most influential of the "Antis," and the "Unificationists" say that the son, though only in his fifties, died of grief.⁸ This minister headed the South Carolina delegation which had fought for Unification.

On looking back at the possible causes of the conflict, and the course through which it has run, it is informative to note how closely it fits into the thesis of Dawson:

Thus we are brought up once more against the fundamental problem of Christian disunity which is the problem of schism. In practice this problem is so closely associated with that of heresy, *i.e.*, difference of religious belief, that they are apt to be confused with another. But it is nevertheless important to distinguish them carefully, and to consider the nature of the schism in itself, for I believe that is in the question of schism rather than that of heresy that the key to the problem of disunity of Christendom is to be found. For heresy as a rule is not the cause of schism but an excuse for it, or rather a rationalization of it. Behind every heresy lies some kind of social conflict, and it is only by

⁸ These cases are cited not so much for the accuracy (or lack of it) of the causes of the deaths, but rather to reflect the opinions of the residents of the community.

the resolution of this conflict that unity can be restored.⁹

Outlook. A student of the sociology of religion, Wach, stresses the fact that in order for a new religious body to preserve itself, the children must hold to the beliefs of their elders. He mentions that because of decisive experiences, the first generation does not have much trouble in keeping together, but that the children, because of facility of contacts under modern conditions, may be guilty of apostasy.¹⁰ Perhaps this is the most promising ray of hope that Turbeville has for the resolution of its internal difficulties. Except for a few scattered altercations, the bitterness that characterizes the contacts of some of the adults in the community is missing among the young people. Some of them even brave censure on occasion by attending the worship service of the opposing faction—an act practically unheard of among the older residents.

There has been at least one case of an "Anti" family's returning to the Methodist Church, but the motivating factor in this was one of unsatisfactory personal relations with the dissident leaders rather than religious conviction. It may be that other families will follow the lead of this one,

⁹ Christopher Dawson, "What about Heretics, An Analysis of the Causes of Schism," *The Commonweal*, XXXVI (September 18, 1942), 514. This entire article, pp. 513-517, gives unusual insight into the various causes of schism in religious bodies.

¹⁰ Joachim Wach, *Sociology of Religion* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944), pp. 203-204.

but the seriousness of the cleavage is indicated by the fact that the "Antis" have constructed a \$25,000 church as well as a brick parsonage. Apparently they mean for the break to be a permanent one. The chief sufferer, of course, has been community

cooperative activity, and it seems that any sort of social progress in the community will be significantly slowed until most of the residents are pulling in the same direction rather than dissipating their energies against each other.

Cultural Changes in a Rural Wisconsin Ethnic Island*

By Oscar F. Hoffman †

ABSTRACT

This paper describes cultural changes which have occurred since pioneer days in a rural, east Wisconsin German ethnic island. The social process is considered in terms of cultural history, geography, mobility, and enmeshment of the area in the dominant American culture. To determine the nature and degree of changes in ethnic values and attitudes, attention is focused on farming methods, family functions, and cultural conflict.

The area has succeeded in making easy adjustments to the American situation and has remained a stable society largely for the following reasons: a traditional pattern of a diversified agriculture, coupled with a willingness to experiment and to conserve soil fertility, a climate and soil suited to this type of farming, acceptance of dairying to assure a cash income, a unique local outlet for excess farm produce, familism, settlement in a large compact group, and contact with an urban culture quite similar to its own.

This paper will describe and analyze the cultural changes which have occurred in Centerville-Mosel, the core of a German ethnic island extending over a large part of four counties in rural Wisconsin. The area studied consists of the two contiguous townships of Centerville and Mosel along Lake Michigan, reaching to within a mile of Sheboygan on the South and to within six miles of Mani-

towoc on the North. The data were gathered during 1941 and the early months of 1942 through participant-observer interviews with 145 farm families selected from a stratified 50 per cent random sample, supplemented by material from immigrant letters, county histories and other historical documents.

I

Culture of the German Immigrants

Germans emigrated to Centerville-Mosel in 1847 to 1854 as individuals, families, or in groups of two or three families, from scattered points mostly

* Condensation of a part of a doctoral dissertation, a study made under the supervision of George W. Hill of the University of Wisconsin and of Guy B. Johnson of the University of North Carolina.

† Oregon State College

in western Germany. They belonged to the Evangelical, Reformed, Lutheran, and Roman Catholic churches. Few were political "revolutionists of 1848". Predominantly peasants, but including some craftsmen, the majority appear to have left Germany mainly because of the uneconomical character of farm holdings and the long mid-nineteenth century depression in western Germany.¹

The peasants among them, having had to make a living on small landholdings, were trained in intensive cultivation. Hence the average settler in Centerville-Mosel was analogous to our truck farmer, rather than to our general farmer. He was a specialist in soils, in plantings, and types of cultivation. Livestock raising was incidental but important. He economized on feed for his livestock, gathering cuttings along the roadside and lanes. He preserved fertilizer—the manure and compost heaps were the marks of a good farmer.²

His major objective was the private ownership of a strip of land, a goal for which he was willing to make great sacrifices, eventually to pass his land on to the next generation.

Frontier Farming

The average German settler worked with all possible speed to clear a few acres for raising enough food for

the first winter. As the forest prevented him from bringing the land under cultivation quickly, he turned naturally to a mixed crop of grain, corn and vegetables—the type of agriculture to which he was formerly accustomed. In Europe, the individual holding was so small that the family could not survive without intensive agriculture; in eastern Wisconsin, a living had to be made from a few acres until more could be captured slowly and laborously from the wilderness. In Germany if, by family effort, he was able to feed, clothe, and shelter the household and pay his obligations to church and state, he was satisfied. In Centerville-Mosel, if in addition, he was able to buy livestock and pay off some farm indebtedness, he was more than satisfied. In a word, adjustment to the frontier strengthened the German settler in the conviction that an intensive agriculture was preferable to the extensive type practiced by Yankees on prairie soils.³

Although the frontier did not force a change in type of farming, it left a mark upon the German settler. Clearing the land was a step in his Americanization. Conquering the wilderness did not force him to speak English or to give up other major cultural traits, but it did make him kin to other groups that had already been conditioned by the frontier experience.

¹ Joseph Schaefer, "The Yankee and the Teuton in Wisconsin," *The Wisconsin Magazine of History*, VI (1922), p. 18; Marcus L. Hansen, "The Revolutions of 1848 and German Emigration," *Journal of Economic and Business History*, II (August, 1930), p. 649.

² Joseph Schafer, *op. cit.*, 274.

³ See J. F. Diedericks. "Letters and Diary," Emil Baensch translator, *The Wisconsin Magazine of History*, VII (1923), pp. 218-237, 350-368.

Subsistence farming then, as now, provided less than an adequate cash income. Money was at a premium in Centerville-Mosel to pay off farm mortgages, buy tools and farm machinery, and household equipment. To meet this need, wheat appeared to offer the most promise. During the late 1860's the market was ready to absorb great quantities. With Lake Michigan piers nearby transportation was no problem. From 1870 to the 1880's, wheat was the principal crop. The immigrants appeared to be giving up a diversified agriculture and settling down to a staple crop economy. However, already in the 1870's the predominant position of wheat was being undermined. Although cash returns from this cereal were high at first, the yield dropped off sharply as the one-crop system brought the inevitable soil exhaustion. Added to this were the ravages of the chinch-bug, as devastating in wheat as the boll-weevil in cotton. And finally, Centerville-Mosel was unable to compete with the prairie states.⁴

Faced with this situation, the settlers emphasized first one and then another feature of their farm production to secure cash. Wheat, corn, and oats were the main feed grains, and later barley, also in demand at local breweries. Orchards and gardens carefully cultivated yielded sufficient fruits, berries, and vegetables for home use and bushel or wagon-load

surpluses for market. The desired substitute for wheat as a source of cash income was also sought in the production of sheep and wool, beef or pork, and horses. By such experimentation the area soon turned again to diversified farming, a rather easy step since it corresponded to the German pattern of farming.

Cash from the sale of these products was added to from the sale of wood. Remembering the relative scarcity of wood for cooking and for fuel in Germany, they revolted at burning the felled trees. Beginning in the 1870's, they shipped some logs from local Lake Michigan piers to Chicago and other lake-port manufacturers, sold more to near-by villages and cities. The fall plowing done, these farmers turned to clearing more land. After the first heavy snow, big logs were loaded on bob-sleds and pulled to local markets, pine and cedar to the Howard's Grove sawmill, and a shingle-cutting mill, oak logs to breweries for kegs, various hard woods to furniture factories in Sheboygan, and soft wood for fuel to the lime kiln near Sheboygan and to an earthenware factory in Sheboygan.

Thus Centerville-Mosel Germans adjusted their farming methods to meet the economic crisis. Cash returns from the sale of wood, surplus grains, fruits and vegetables were relatively small, but by turning a penny wherever they could and by selling any livestock ready for market, they were able to secure the badly needed cash to build a sounder economy. Cultural-

⁴*Geographical and Historical Atlas of Sheboygan County Wisconsin* (The Jerry Donohue Engineering Company, Sheboygan: 1941), p. 14.

ly conditioned to hard work and to a diversified agriculture in Germany, this is precisely the kind of an adjustment one would have expected these immigrants to make when wheat failed to provide them with a stable economy. They had started with a diversified agriculture, then tried a cash crop economy, and when that proved inadequate, returned to a diversified agriculture.

A Milk Economy

Even though the folk had always regarded the milk cow as a necessary part of their economy, in Germany even as in Wisconsin, it was not clear until the early 1890's that the cow would win over other farm animals, or even over any of the crops, as the best money-maker of them all. Until then, the cow was merely one of several diverse farm enterprises for increasing income. Every farmer maintained his own primitive, kitchen-dairying establishment, for making butter and cheese for family use and for the irregular local trade.

Today Centerville-Mosel is definitely a dairyland. Only five of the one hundred and forty-five farmers interviewed milked no cows. Slightly more than three-fourths reported dairy herds of ten to twenty-five cows, one of forty-five. Farmers estimated that 20 per cent of the cows were pure-bred. Not uncommon are cows that produce more than four hundred pounds of butter fat per year, and at least one cow, a Holstein-Friesian, produced nearly nine hundred pounds.⁵ Milk is sold to nine

local cheese factories, to creameries and dairies at Sheboygan and to a milk condensery at Manitowoc. In a search of the factors which turned these Germans to dairying, a soil and climate favorable to the growing of grass and feed crops should head the list. Not that the glacier's iceplow and the weather acted as direct determinants in the choice, but they do account for the area's being better suited to dairying, than, for example, to corn.⁶

Another factor that weighed heavily was the Germans' willingness to experiment and to follow the advice of the agricultural experiment station and later of the county agent "to substitute the cow for the plow." And when farm leaders effectively presented the case for legumes to improve milk yield and soil fertility and when enterprising farmers, by following the advice, were rewarded with bigger yields in crops and milk, neighbors were quick to imitate.

Possibly the factor that came nearest to determining that Centerville-Mosel should become a dairy region was the introduction into Sheboygan County of the highly important American factory system of cheese making. Credit for this step, however, must go not to the Germans, but to several New York farmers who settled a few miles west of Sheboygan Falls when the Germans were acquiring the land in Centerville-Mosel. At

⁵ The 1940 national average was 183.6 pounds per cow; for Wisconsin 216 pounds.

⁶ J. Russell Smith, *Men and Resources* (New York: 1939), p. 307.

first Sheboygan Falls and later Plymouth, which lies some fifteen or twenty miles from Centerville-Mosel, came to be called "The Cheese Center of the World." Even today on each Friday the Cheese Board of Trade meets at Plymouth to determine the cheese price for the nation. Thus were these German settlers caught up in the dairy movement in the late nineteen hundreds.

Significant, too, was the fact that they had been accustomed for generations to working with cows. The cow was in their culture. They had generally housed their cattle better than had other nationalities. And now that they were faced with the prospect of "tying themselves to a cow," they were not averse to it. Some Yankee and other groups might have chosen to move westward rather than change to dairy farming. Centerville-Mosel offered little if any resistance to dairying with its requirement of close and regular attention to details and of chores at least twice a day. Their value system required no radical adjustment to a dairy cow economy.

Man-Land Adjustment

Centerville-Mosel Germans appear to have followed to the present a rather consistent pattern of behavior in man-land adjustment, always manifesting a conservative rather than an exploitive attitude toward land. Except for the relatively short period of wheat economy, careful crop rotation seems to have been the rule on the majority of farms. All farmers interviewed said they practiced crop rota-

tion and used legumes extensively. In 1941, in Mosel township, about half the acreage was in hay, chiefly alfalfa and clover, about one fifth in oats, and the rest mostly in corn and barley.

As peasants they had carefully preserved, in their European farmyards, all compost and barnyard manure and expressed their evaluation of farm manure in the old saying: "Die Mistgrube ist des Bauern Goldgrube."⁷ A modified Centerville-Mosel version of a similar idea came from the lips of a second-generation Roman Catholic who told the interviewer: "Ja, Ja, wo Mistus is da ist Christus."⁸ This appears to imply that God blesses those farmers with big crops who faithfully apply to their land the necessary barnyard manure.

As pioneers in East Wisconsin they had conserved all manure and still regard it as a soil builder. A drive through this area most any day of the year will bring to the nostrils the pungent smell of manure freshly applied to fields. Rare is the farmer who permits it to accumulate in his barnyard except when fields are too soft from rain or too deep in snow. Experience had taught them what numerous field tests have since shown, namely, that fresh manure is superior to the fermented variety as fertilizer.⁹ Besides, careful handling of farm-produced fertilizer effected an annual

⁷ "The manure pit is the farmer's gold pit."

⁸ "Yes, yes, where there is manure there is Christ."

⁹ *Soils and Men, 1938 Yearbook of Agriculture, USDA (Washington, D. C.), p. 452.*

saving of \$175 to \$750 per farm on the commercial fertilizer bill.

Adjustment to a National and World Economy

Centerville-Mosel Germans were always aware of the importance of the market. Immigrant letters inform us that the settlers chose this area because Lake Michigan provided easy transportation for surplus farm products. Their experience with wheat demonstrated the effects of competition from other areas. Radical fluctuations in the price of cheese after World War I proved that dairying, too, must adjust itself to a national and world economy.

In the economic crisis of the early 1930's, when on-the-farm cheese prices reached a low of 10.5 cents per pound, these Germans tried in various ways to increase their incomes. Although most of them kept their herds as large as before, hoping each year that the price of cheese would rise to cover cost of production, they experimented with increasing production of other items or of adding new enterprises. Hybrid corns were tried, and when this resulted in much higher yields of this grain, some raised more hogs. A few increased the size of their orchards to supplement their cash income by the sale of high quality fruit. A few planted more strawberries and raspberries, and still others enlarged their poultry flocks—or did all of these things and more to secure the desired cash income.

Centerville-Mosel's adjustment to the national economy cannot be fully explained without describing a unique local outlet for excess farm produce. In 1889, H. C. Prange, a man of German descent, with acquaintances and relatives among the farmers, established in Sheboygan a general merchandise store. To build up a lively trade he conceived the idea in the early 1890's of standing ready to buy, for credit, all their saleable farm products. The merchant's profit was to come from the farmers' purchases at the store rather than from the farm produce to be disposed of locally through the grocery department or on Chicago or other markets. Thus, for example, he paid Chicago market prices for eggs, covering the cost of shipping by increasing their vendibility through careful grading.

For more than half a century the name Prange has meant to Centerville-Mosel and other farmers the store where they could dispose of a wide variety of products: fresh vegetables, green or dried beans and peas, apples, strawberries, eggs, homemade soap, hand cheese, rags, and even caraway seed that grows wild along the roadside! This explains why even today, in this largest of general merchandise stores in Sheboygan local products compete with national brands.

This unusual market outlet has enabled Centerville-Mosel farmers to dispose of farm products at the best prices obtainable and to turn into purchasing power much farm produce that ordinarily cannot be chan-

neled into the market. It enabled them to capitalize on a diversified agriculture in a way that is not open to most farm communities. It helped them keep faith in this type of agriculture even in such crisis periods as that of the early 1930's.

Thus did Centerville-Mosel farmers through good years and bad years alike hold on to their diversified economy, with dairying as the mainstay. The pattern of their reaction to meet the crisis of the last great depression could have been predicted from their European and American agricultural history. No radical departure was required in their farming pattern.

II

A discussion of the adjustment of Centerville-Mosel Germans to the American economy requires some attention to the family system and an attempt to determine how family ideals, such as familism, have tended to spell security for the economy of the area.

The Family Home

At the center of the German family system has traditionally existed the ideal that the family house and home should remain the possession of a succession of generations. The family estate in Germany was the object of family pride—it was the peasant's home, but it had also been the home of the father, grandfather, and the great-grandfather. Under this system, the operator and his wife do not retire to town but to a portion of their own farmhouse. "A partnership

contract is entered into with the son, who, with his family, occupies the remainder of the house."¹⁰

Use of the partnership contract of passing the farm on to the next generation was continued in Centerville-Mosel. This device, a so-called "bond of maintainance," guaranteed security to parents in that the son was not to acquire clear title to the land until after the death of both parents. The contract generally stipulated the farm price, the amount to be paid to each of the other heirs, what part of the house the parents were to occupy, what garden and orchard plot they were entitled to use, what food and what services, such as transportation to village or church, the son was to provide the parents.

Fairly representative of the type of bond drawn up early in the period of settlement in Centerville-Mosel is the following:

In consideration of \$1500 paid to their son, G—W— and E—, his wife, are to get per year for life the following:

1. Fifteen bushels of best wheat
2. Ten bushels of rye
3. Twenty bushels of the best potatoes
4. Three hundred best eggs
5. One hog two hundred pounds heavy
6. Two tons of best hay
7. All the best straw what two pieces of cattle can use
8. All the best Sauer Kraut what G—W— and E— his wife want

¹⁰ O. E. Baker, Ralph Borsodi, M. L. Wilson, *Agriculture in Modern Life* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940), p. 169.

9. All the fire wood ready cut for use
10. Two best rooms for to live and sleep in
11. One half of all the fruit
12. One half of all the best Beet
13. A good place in the barn for two heads of cattle
14. The horses and wagon for the use of G—W— and E— his wife
15. In case of sickness of G—W—, or E— his wife a doctor must be brought to their wishes.

All the mentioned articles cease after the last dies of G—W— and E— his wife.¹¹

Another bond of the same period required the son to supply his parents with items not produced on the farm:

fifty-two pounds of good coffee and fifty-two pounds of coffee sugar, twelve pounds of smoking tobacco $\frac{1}{2}$ of No. 1 and $\frac{1}{2}$ of No. 2. . . (and) 100 pound salt . . .¹²

Some bonds provided for a way out in the event the two parties to the contract could not agree.

Bonds of maintenance or slight modifications thereof are still employed. Fifteen of the one hundred and forty-five families visited admitted using the bond of support. Others described inheritance customs which were modifications of the old system. An increasing number of parents appear to sell their farms outright to a son, very often at considerably below the market value, making deductions

from the principal for the years he worked without wages after he had reached his twenty-first birthday. The rest of the principal, at low interest rate, is generally regarded as a loan which may be paid off in easy payments. Such a transfer provides the parents with a choice as to residence: they may remain on the homestead, working for room and board or paying for such benefits, move in with another heir, or retire to town.

Family feeling for the old homestead seems on the whole still to be strong. The ideal of the family farm dies hard. Several very old couples continued to operate productive farms while hoping that a kind providence might force a son or daughter to return home to continue where the parents were ready to leave off. Even the young people appear generally to hold to this ideal. In several cases children expressed unsolicited willingness to make considerable financial sacrifice to save the homestead for the family. In one instance, where parents were ready to retire and were offered \$25,000 for the farm, a figure which put the property out of the reach of any of the children to buy, the large family persuaded the parents to let the oldest brother take over the homestead at half the market price rather than let it fall into strange hands. Such an attitude is quite incomprehensible save in terms of the value system of these Germans.

Continuing the farm in the same family for generations produces significant consequences. It encourages operators to economize, to keep prop-

¹¹ Manitowoc County (Wisconsin) Record of Mortgages W, 1872, pp. 84-85.

¹² *Ibid.*, 1874, p. 441.

erty in good repair, to make permanent improvements, and to develop a sense of family pride. In Centerville-Mosel the practice appears largely to account for good housing, for well-equipped barns with electric lights, cement floors, and drinking fountains, for good fences and painted buildings. It makes for a high percentage of home ownership—only four of one hundred and forty-five families interviewed were renters. Asked why they were owners rather than renters, a third said they preferred ownership because any improvements made would remain the possession of the family; another third because it gave them an opportunity to do their own planning; and a sixth because they had not known anything else. A majority expressed surprise at the question, as though it had never occurred to them that there could be any doubt about the advantages of home ownership.

The Role of the Women

In the eyes of the German settler, the ideal woman was the housewife, unafraid of hard work, whose major interest was cooking, sewing, the care of house, and the bearing and care of children, and who matched the industry of the man on the fields and in the barn with her own in garden, at chores, and even in the fields. The German social heritage gave first place in the family to the husband, but reserved an equally important place in the economic enterprise to his silent partner, the wife.

This pattern persisted in this area through the various stages of economic development. In pioneer days, the wife cared for household and garden, helped gather in the harvest and piled brush when land was being cleared. She turned milk into butter and cheese for home use and for the trade. With the establishment of the cheese factory about 1890, she was burdened with cheese making only in winter, but so considerably had the dairy herds been enlarged, that this winter task became almost unbearable. Year-around operation of cheese factories eventually relieved her of this drudgery, but milk utensils had still to be washed daily, and butter and some cheese had to be made for home use. However, the women generally accepted their lot. After all, their mothers and grandmothers before them had assumed this as their part of farm work—why should not they! It was in the folkways.

The position of women was gradually altered during the past forty years, though not radically. On two-thirds of the farms, women continued to assume in addition to household duties, the care of garden, assistance at chores, and work in the fields. In the majority of cases field work was occasional—at potato planting or harvesting, grain harvesting or threshing, fruit or berry picking and silo filling. An exceptional few shrank from scarcely any task on the farm, and a few there were, too, who were doing field work for the first time because of the scarcity of farm labor.

Some had discontinued doing such work because of old age or bad health.

The German "Hausfrau" type does, however, now have a competitor in eight to ten per cent of the families, women who regard field work as unseemly for their sex. Some in this group had come from another German community or from another nationality group, some had frequent contacts with friends in Sheboygan, or had been to high school. This new type centers her major interest on furnishing her home in good taste, and/or taking a leading part in Farm Bureau or church work. Although still in the minority, because she tends to be more articulate and to assume leadership, her influence will grow and probably eventually change the role of women in Centerville-Mosel.

Transmitting Family Ideals

The family in Centerville-Mosel has remained a strong medium for transmitting the social heritage. Loyalty to family ideals persists, as, for example, to the family homestead described above. In general, family loyalty in Centerville-Mosel is a natural product. Since the German way of farming had provided a reasonably high standard of living, second and third generation youth found it relatively easy to be loyal to the family and what it stood for.

While the bond-of-maintenance contract was significant in keeping the homestead in the family, it was probably more significant as a device for transmitting family ideals. For under

this system, since the grandparents continued to live in the home and associated intimately with the grandchildren, they could repeatedly rehearse the family's achievements, how it had wrested the homestead from the forest with prodigious labor, and why the German farm methods were superior, for example, to those of the Irish living in an adjacent township. A keen sense of accomplishment was thus passed on from generation to generation, a conviction that the family had a heritage of which to be proud. In view of the trend for old people to retire to near-by villages instead of continuing to live at the homestead, their influence will decline. Family ideals will tend to be transmitted to the next generation by parents who can be assumed to be more Americanized than the generation before them. Also, in the absence of their parents, they will tend to feel freer to introduce innovations to the value system and pass them on to their children.

A measure of the extent to which the present generation of parents employs conscious efforts to preserve family ideals may be gathered from their choice of vocation for their children. Of a total of one hundred and ten families in this category, sixty-one felt the choice was entirely a matter for the children to decide, and forty-one wanted them to elect farming. Of this last group, twenty-seven frankly stated as their reason the desire to keep the farm in the family, a few that they liked farming themselves. Several had actually discard-

ed the family farm as the ideal for the reason that "farming means too much hard work," "a laborer gets better pay," and "a secretary makes more money." Such a pattern of attitudes indicates that Centerville-Mosel is being exposed to ideals that compete with those still predominant.

III

It would now seem pertinent to determine the nature and character of the contact of the area with American urban culture and to inquire into the character of the changes such relationship may have produced.

Comparative Isolation

Centerville-Mosel for various reasons has a heavier cushioning against the impact of urban or other diverse cultural patterns than have other areas similarly located near fairly large population centers. In the first place, the area consists almost one hundred per cent of people of German extraction, and what is probably even more significant, it constitutes the core of an ethnic island that spreads over several counties. The necessity or possibility of contacts with native Americans or other nationality groups was thus kept to a minimum. The German value system could, until a very recent date, be transmitted to the next generation without challenge.

The nature of the contact with the cities up until the 1920's when concrete highways were built through the area, was almost entirely for trade purposes. In all other respects,

Centerville-Mosel was singularly self-sufficing. The churches played a vital role in their life and adequately supplied their religious needs. Family and relationship gatherings, card parties, weddings, anniversaries, and square dances frequently held in their local tavern-dance-halls, met their recreational needs. City offerings in these fields thus had little attraction.

The tardy introduction of American urban patterns can also in part be explained in terms of the social character of Sheboygan, the population center most popular with residents of the area. Although there are Dutch and other nationality elements in this city, the German predominates. German is still spoken in the homes, in business places and at public gatherings. Much of the life of people in Sheboygan revolves around the church and the dance-hall, the same institutions which are the focus of social life in Centerville-Mosel. These Germans, though near a city, were thus not intimately exposed to an urban culture of a typically American variety. Innovations of urban origin reached them generally only after having been belatedly accepted by Sheboygan. This differs from the situation in the urbanization of most folk societies where contacts are usually with an entirely different type of culture.¹³

But urban influence seems destined to play an increasingly important role since the building of cement highways in the 1920's and since excess

¹³ For comparison see Horace Miner, *St. Denis* (Chicago: 1939), p. 140.

youth have been attracted increasingly to the near-by factories of Kohler, Manitowoc, and Sheboygan beginning in the first World War, also in the late 1920's, and again in World War II. Some of these factory workers continue to live with their parents, or build new homes along the concrete highways, the others live in the city where they work. In any case, since the factory workers tend to continue intimate association with relatives and friends in Centerville-Mosel, urban ideals will be introduced with increasing frequency.

Urban ways of doing things are, of course, also trickling into the area through the English daily newspaper now found in all but seven of one hundred and forty-two homes reporting. And the radio, considered a necessity in most homes and even in barns, exposes the folk to urban patterns not screened through Sheboygan.

In summary, it may be pointed out

that the original value system of this nationality group has not been very greatly changed by the American cultural environment. Old World farm practices, such as soil conservation, diversified farming, and keeping the homestead in the family had enabled Centerville-Mosel farmers to compete with other farm groups and to hold their own economically in good and bad times alike. In this situation second and third generation youth found it relatively easy to be loyal to the German type of farming. And living at the core of an ethnic island extending over several counties, these settlements were well cushioned against the impact of urban and/or other cultural patterns. Centerville-Mosel remained a stable community. Today, with isolation coming gradually to an end, the area stands at the threshold of a new era, a period in which the German rural value system will be increasingly challenged by those of an urban society.

Crop Response as a Testing Ground for Geo-Cultural Regionalism*

By J. M. Gillette †

ABSTRACT

The criterion of science is power of prediction as realized respecting controlled conditions of certain physical sciences. Geo-cultural regionalism implies a degree of ability to predict the effects in society from physical environment factors. Crop response offers a good testing ground of this, since relations of nature and society are there intimate and direct. Such situations prove baffling, because simple factors on one side articulate with a complex of factors on the other, rendering it impossible to trace the exact effects of the natural antecedents. The sequence is lost in the shuffle. From neither trends nor correlations can it be predicted exactly what effect such natural factors as precipitation or temperature will have on crop acreage, yield, income, or the death rate, educational index, and other cultural complexes. The conclusion is that this can be a field of approximate scientific forecasting only.

As rural sociologist, I have used the crop response concept considerably and, I think, profitably. In considering geo-cultural regionalism, it occurred to me that about the best place to observe the action and reaction of collective man and nature would be in the domain of crop response. Nature's exhibit seems to be at its best there and its effects on man and society might conceivably be seen and measured under such simple and favorable relationships. If scientific objectivity could be tested in this spectacular field, it might yield results which could be followed out elsewhere.

In the exact physical sciences, conditions are completely controlled for experimental purposes. Nothing is left to chance. The same results always follow from the same set of controlled conditions. Exact measure-

ments result in "natural law" (in the laboratory) and give the ability to predict the future with respect to the laboratory-controlled reactions. Exact prediction comes to rule as the token of complete scientific objectivity. But beyond the domains of laboratory control, the power of prediction grows less and throughout nature and in the great outside universe it is patchy and generally quite contingent. My undertaking was to discover whether prediction from nature's conduct was discoverable in the crop response area.

A sociologist sets out with his tongue in his cheek here, because he knows the import of socio-cultural evolution in general. As culture grows, the direct determining effect of nature on collective life diminishes. It is an approximate law that the determinative effect of nature on man in collective life is inverse to the height of the cultural level. Farmers in our crop response regions are al-

* A revision of a paper read at the Midwest Sociological meeting at Des Moines, 1947.

† University of North Dakota.

most an exception, isolated on farms the way most of them are. Cooperative action of society affords them little protection from many kinds of nature's thrusts. We would not expect great determination by nature in higher collective life, but perchance it may creep in under pronounced crop response.

Crop response is about the most simple single nexus between nature and society. It has the advantage of seeming to be a simplex, whereas the society of a region is a gigantic and bewildering complex of the interactions of thousands of factors. However, as we shall see, a crop response is itself a very great complex. Yet it appears to be the simplest, direct nexus between nature and collective culture.

In making regional tests, three different great crop response areas have been studied, those of cotton, corn and wheat. What is preeminently the cotton belt comprises eleven states stretching from Texas and Oklahoma on the west to the Carolinas on the east, including Missouri. These eleven states comprise 90 per cent of the national cotton acreage, 93 per cent of the bales produced, and 81 per cent of the cotton farm income. For corn-belt and wheat-belt states, eight Great Plains states and the adjoining three states of Minnesota, Iowa, and Missouri have been used because those 11 states produced the majority acreage and bushels of those crops and were contiguous. This and the cotton response belt constitute approximately two of the great regions. These

three crop response areas, cotton, corn, and wheat, are among the most important and pronounced crop response communities of the world. They form a valid testing ground for what I endeavor to test.

My mode of procedure has been to estimate for each state, of a given crop response belt, three most decisive and fair crop response results, namely mean yield per acre, proportionate specific crop acreage of the total crop acreage, and proportionate specific crop income of all crop income. Each of these has been regarded relative to natural environmental features such as precipitation and temperature. Mean figures for those two natural features exist for all states and are more general than those for other physical conditions such as soil, altitude, run-off, evaporation and the like. Certain wholly cultural factors, regional and national, were also correlated with state precipitation and temperature.

Attempts to measure determining effects of nature on cultural conditions are variously beclouded. A modern crop plant is, itself, a mixture of nature and inbred man-made qualities. Our most productive corn differs profoundly from the original primitive Central American grass which was small and bore its kernels in the tassels. Our domestic commercial plants are generally much enlarged and much more fruitful than were the original plants. Our best corn produces scores of times more than did its original ancestor. It is a problem to strip nature from cultural

factors and to measure nature's effects.

Then, in production, diverse and multiple factors are brought to bear. Producers graduate upward from ignorant and inefficient to those of scientific intelligence and alertness. Tillage embraces many things: hand labor or machines, care in seed selection or otherwise, grades of effectiveness in cultivation and harvesting, use of fertilizers, crop rotation, and the like. The area, or acreage, involves various conditioning factors, natural and culturally determined. Different man-made conditions determine yield and crop income. Precipitation or temperature reach into all of these varying conditions and their effects are rendered confused and uncertain.

Again, crop response areas are so named by dominant crops, such as cotton, corn, wheat. But dominance in such an area, is somewhat baffling. Does the crop dominate all other crops or some one crop? Within such an area, the crop may be dominant over some other crops in some state and subordinate to some other crop in a state. The way is not clear to measure with exactitude the effect of nature on a major crop in a great crop response area.

A further difficulty in crop response measurements of the effects of nature emerges from the fact that crop response areas overlap one another and merge into each other.

Samples from an extended list of correlations in cotton, wheat, and corn belts are presented in Table 1.

Its inspection will reveal whether correlations constitute a means of objective prognosis.

The method of correlation is widely used as an index of causal relationship between two or more relatives. But a significant correlation between natural factors such as temperature or precipitation, and a crop response result tells us nothing exactly about yield, acreage or collective income. Coefficients only indicate—they may be significant, but they do not predict. A perfect correlation of unity, or 100 per cent, predicts nothing. It may only mean that the two series of variables are closely correlated in their variations but does not predict exact causation between the variables. I have estimated scores of correlations in crop response areas between such factors without discovering any possibilities of certain prediction from natural facts. Here is a sample from cotton states. There are 16 cotton states which produce cotton much or dominantly. These stretch from the Carolinas to California. Now, California stands first in yield per acre, and Arizona is a leader in that respect. But big cotton yields there tell us nothing about facts of nature. Cotton of moment would be raised in neither state were it not for irrigation. Man has built great dams where mountain-fed streams flow, impounded gigantic stores of water, made ditches, and so has led water to his cotton plants. Cotton culture there is wholly a man-made, not a nature-made fact.

TABLE 1. CORRELATIONS: COTTON BELT

States	Subject	Relative	r
Alabama	Temperature	Precipitation	0.18
		Cotton acreage	0.48
		Cotton yield	0.76
Arkansas		Ratio of cotton to all-crop value	0.65
		Per cent. population urban	-0.84
Georgia		General death rate	-0.86
		Pneumonia death rate, 1936	0.76
Louisiana	Precipitation	Pneumonia death rate, 1945	-0.56
		Educational index	-0.71
Mississippi		Ratio cotton acreage to all crop acreage (13 states)	0.57
Missouri		Cotton yield	0.14
		Ratio cotton to all-crop value	0.28
North Carolina		Cotton crop income	0.19
		Per cent population urban	-0.81
Oklahoma	Cotton yield	Educational index	-0.79
		General death rate	0.24
South Carolina		Pneumonia death rate, 1936	-0.76
		Pneumonia death rate, 1945	0.15
Tennessee		Educational index	-0.64
		Per cent population Negro	-0.39
Texas		Size of all families	0.57
		Size of non white family	0.13

CORRELATIONS: WHEAT AND CORN STATES

Minnesota	Precipitation	Wheat acreage	-0.88
		Wheat yield	0.75
Iowa		Ratio corn acreage to all-crop acreage	0.46
		Corn yield	0.48
Missouri		Pneumonia death rate, 1936	-0.89
	Temperature	Pneumonia death rate, 1945	-0.78
North Dakota		Wheat acreage	0.11
South Dakota		Wheat yield	-0.76
		Corn yield	0.29
Nebraska		Pneumonia death rate, 1936	0.28
		Pneumonia death rate, 1945	0.27
Kansas			
Oklahoma			
Texas			
Montana			
Colorado			

Coefficients of correlation were likewise sought between climatic and cultural factors in crop response areas, and between nature factors and some culture factors of general import. There were a number of significant correlations between climatic

features and an educational index in the southeastern cotton belt, as also between per cent of urbanism and climate, but not all were significant. Significance was found between climatic factors and nonwhite population but none between those and size

TABLE 2. COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION AND PROBABLE ERRORS, FOR ALL STATES AND DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, WHEN R IS FOUR TIMES THE PROBABLE ERROR.

Subject	Relative	r	P.E.
Mean temperature	Mean cancer death rate *	-0.57	.07
Mean temperature	Nephritis death rate	0.44	.09
Mean temperature	Tuberculosis death rate	0.58	.07
Mean precipitation	Mean nephritis death rate	0.67	.07
Mean precipitation	Tuberculosis death rate	0.59	.07
Per cent population urban .	Mean cancer death rate	0.67	.07
Per cent population urban .	Cerebral hemorrhage death rate	0.40	.07
Per cent population urban .	School attendance—all ages	-0.39	.08
Per cent population urban .	Death rate heart disease	0.75	.04
Mean per capita income ...	Mean general death rate	0.28	.09
Mean per capita income ...	Heart death rate	0.74	.04
Mean per capita income ...	Cancer death rate	0.70	.05
School attendance: all ages .	General death rate	-0.58	.07
Per cent population, 5-54 ..	Cerebral hemorrhage death rate	-0.51	.07

* All death rates are means for years, 1932-4, as is per capita income; temperature and precipitation are all time means; School Attendance is for all ages, 1930; all other data are for year, 1930.

(Data for estimates from U. S. Census, Population; U. S. Reports Weather Bureau; U. S. Census Mortality Statistics; report National Indust. Conf. Bd.)

of nonwhite family. Note the curious reversal between precipitation and pneumonia death rate, 1936 and 1945. Climatic features correlated significantly with yield, proportionate acreage, and proportionate specific crop income, in the corn belt and the wheat belt, some direct and some inverse. But many were insignificant. In North Dakota, as a sector of the Great Plains, significant coefficients obtained between precipitation and yield by counties, and between precipitation and loss of county population, but none as yet between precipitation and mechanization of agriculture.

In the national area scores of correlations were run between climatic factors and such cultural factors as general death rate, between them and specific death rates of the great man-

killers, and between them and urbanism, income, age distribution, and the like. Significance remained to but a few climatic factors after the application of partial correlation. There was none for the general death rate. Its regional distribution did not demonstrate itself. Nor was there for most of the specific death rates due to heart, cancer, tuberculosis, pneumonia, diabetes, cerebral hemorrhage. Out of all specific death rates, tuberculosis manifested the most regionalism, the southern belt of states being high. Heart and cerebral hemorrhage were more largely urban than nature matters. Spot-maps of death rates,¹ general and specific, seemed to exhibit some regionalism but this ap-

¹ For spot-maps of general and specific death rates, see J. M. Gillette, *Scientific Monthly*, (Sept. 1941), 241-7.

parent effect was cancelled by the fact that similar climatic states had widely diverse rates, while states which diverged in climate showed kindred rates. Other factors than climate, such as urbanism, per capita income, age distribution, interstate migration, and the like proved to be disturbing and determining factors.

We can barely allude to the many estimates made for North Dakota as a significant portion of the Great Plains area. The Great Plains give the appearance of being a real region. Nature has etched upon it in many ways the earmarks of regional fiats. Scarcely any other great area on earth conveys the impression that nature dictates more. Yet few things in man-made society can be measurably assigned to nature only. The writer spent a year's research on North Dakota weather alone to discover its exact effects ("North Dakota Weather and the Rural Economy," *North Dakota History*, Bismarck, April, 1945) and finished with negative results. We cannot forecast next year's precipitation, temperature, crop acreage, yield, grasshoppers, rust, agricultural income, hail, blizzards, length of growing season. After four decades of observation and study of state conditions, there is but one prophesy I can make, and that is somewhat contingent, namely that North Dakota will remain for decades and generations dominantly agricultural and rural. Its location in the continent ordains that. Its great markets and consuming populations are far to the east. With no deep

waterways and their low freight rates, with only railways and their high freight rates for manufactured goods by which to reach markets, the state is destined to ship out its raw materials, chiefly agricultural products, lignite, and fine pottery clay for manufacture elsewhere and to ship in consumers goods. Great urban populations as markets will not develop because great industries which account for them will not locate here in default of proximate markets. If it is thought that national location is a fiat of nature, some reflection will recall that a region, a community, is a social, not a natural, product. It would be physically and mechanically possible to bring deep waterways to this region, but it would not be profitable. Nature did not connect the state to trans-Mississippi regions by railways with their conditioning traffic rates. Man did that.

Trends and index series offer ways of peering into the future. They furnish most valuable information of an approximate nature, but an inspection of fair samples denote that exactitude of prediction from nature in crop response areas is not possible. Table 3 gives the index series of our national cotton acreage harvested by five-year periods from 1911 to 1945, and for single years from 1943 to 1946.

The trend in cotton acreage was upward generally until about 1930 after which time it was rapidly downward. Temperature and precipitation were constants during the four decades save for short time fluctuations.

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TABLE 3. TRENDS IN UNITED STATES COTTON ACREAGE HARVESTED, 1911-1945, BY FIVE-YEAR PERIODS.

Period	Index
1911-15	100.0
1916-20	99.5
1921-25	107.0
1926-30	125.5
1931-35	94.1
1936-40	80.5
1941-45	61.2
1943	64.1
1944	58.5
1945	50.8
1946	52.3

(Source of data: *Statistical Abstracts of the United States 1947*: p. 650.)

Neither afforded any basis of prediction in 1910 that the cotton acreage would expand rapidly, nor in 1930 did they indicate that a rapid decline in the acreage would take place.

Index trends in certain great regions for a number of factors which have appeared in *Social Forces* illustrate the impossibility of forecasting regional trends from climatic factors. Of course, state and national trends abundantly support similar conclusions.

A further illustration of the impossibility of exact forecasting cultural results from nature is observed in Table 4.

Regional indexes offer a field for predicting the effects of nature's fiat on socio-cultural matters. Multitudes of such indexes and charts are found in *American Regionalism* by Odum and Moore. The data and findings relating to the six great regions are fundamentally important and, so this writer thinks, establish regionalism as a verity. Without in any way reflecting on the scientific importance of that work, a careful study of the data and findings results in a judgment that they are approximations only. They do not offer a secure basis for exactitude of prescience in collective directions. Because of the interplay of super-regional forces, and regional forces, and because every natural simplex terminates in the intricate meshwork of nature and culture where exactitude of tracing the con-

TABLE 4. PNEUMONIA DEATH RATES IN CERTAIN COTTON BELT STATES, 1920, 1936, AND 1945.

State	1920		1936		1945	
	Rate	Index	Rate	Index	Rate	Index
Louisiana	116.8	100	124	106	61.4	52
Mississippi	107.3	100	89	83	55.3	52
Missouri	162.5	100	122	75	72.7	45
North Carolina	93.9	100	100	106	53.5	57
South Carolina	111.3	100	113	102	64.2	58
Tennessee	120.5	100	115	95	70.2	58
Total	118.9	100	111	93	62.9	53

Only the above Cotton Belt States are used because the others did not have registration records for pneumonia, in 1920. The climatic factors, temperature and precipitation are constants, save for short-time fluctuations. To seek to predict the pneumonia death rate in 1920 from either for any state, or for the combined states, bears the appearance of complete futility. At no time does either give an inkling of death rate or index.

(Sources data: Mortality Statistics of U. S., 1920, and U. S. Vital Statistics for 1936 and 1945.)

tinuity and exact force of a natural element becomes impossible, measurable prediction is aborted.

Geo-cultural regionalism is basic to a consideration of cultural regionalism. Every cultural region bears the earmarks and boundaries of physical nature. Nature does touch, and more or less influences, many important socio-cultural matters of regions. The difficulty is to discover an exactitude of measurement of such influences. Such a natural simplex as precipitation crosses its nexus into culture and its effects radiate into and fuse with a complex of cultural factors. The passage is not from simple nature to simple nature, but from simple nature to a complex of nature and culture. Culture cannot get away from nature but nature is meaningless without

culture. Some matters transcend the natural implications of a region, or the nature factors of a region. The tie-up of a region with other regions, with the nation, with the world, the great fact of interdependence of conditions and functions within the great society, brings it about that super-regionalism often decides the fate of a region. The South may allege that its economic lag is due to super-Cotton region northern control of transportation rates. The silver interests of Mountain states may lobby Congress to secure national law which makes it worthwhile to keep mining a debased metal in the mountain region. A declining cotton acreage may be referred to super-regional competing rayon, nylon, and the growth of cotton culture across the seas.

RESEARCH NOTES

*Edited by Robin M. Williams **

ADVANCED TECHNIQUES IN THE DELINEATION OF RURAL REGIONS

A region represents a relatively homogeneous geographic area with respect to one or more characteristics. The number of explicit characteristics used in its determination depends upon the purpose for which the region is delineated. Actually, however, virtually any characteristic selected for regional determination, such as soil-type or income, does not stand alone but carries with it the weight of a certain number of component factors, and non-component correlated factors. Thus, either directly or indirectly regional determination becomes a complex matter.

The sociologists' interest in regionalism centers in its cultural aspects regardless of possible relationships between the cultural and the bio-physical factors. The cultural area concept owes its origin to anthropologists who emphasize the core of the primitive area, an idea not entirely without value in contemporary industrial society.¹ But the delineation of cultural areas of modern society by statistical methods rests primarily upon the fact that the fabric of modern culture is composed of variable traits that are correlated among themselves. This is not to say that all cultural traits are significantly correlated, but large clusters of them are, and if it were not so, cultural areas would possess little meaning.²

Although large clusters of inter-correlated traits may be readily distinguished, apparently other traits occur which are not significantly correlated with each other. The extent to which this is true has not yet been determined, but it suggests that, if

cultural areas can be delimited only by means of associated traits, such areas can never be regarded as significantly different in terms of the total culture, but only in terms of certain associated aspects. It suggests that the approach to cultural areas may have to be made in terms of the culture complex.

Another point of importance concerns the degree of homogeneity of the region as contrasted with other areas. The diffusion of culture has made areas different chiefly in degree rather than in kind, and the investigator must determine *a priori* how homogeneous his areas must be, or conversely how many areas he desires. Obviously, the answer to either of these questions depends upon the purpose to be served by the areas. Without regard to the number, purely in the interest of obtaining homogeneity, subdivision could be pursued until the regions were reduced to the local units upon which the data were based.

To a considerable extent, then, the delineation of regions is a relative matter, and no technique can make it otherwise. No method, irrespective of the mathematical exactness with which it can be applied, can escape this fundamental nature of the data.

The delineation of regions can be more or less logically divided into three steps or phases, and the techniques can be said to have served about three functions. The first is a selection and weighting of variables upon which the delineation is to be based. The second is the use of the variables to delimit the areas, and third, is a test to determine the validity of the work.

With respect to the selection and weighting of variables, several problems are presented. We are limited generally by the recorded data at our disposal, and the pattern is set largely by what is available. The exact data that are to be used depends upon

* Cornell University.

¹ Cf. Wissler, Clark, *Man and Culture*, and *The American Indian*.

² If all cultural traits possessed zero intercorrelations, a region would inevitably have to be determined by a single trait, and it would possess no meaning except in terms of that trait.

the purpose of the delineation. If we are attempting to establish areas in which all aspects of culture are homogenous, then we should include all measures of cultural variation.

A problem in weighting is presented by the fact that certain characteristics are measured in a number of ways and there is danger of including them out of proportion to other equally important traits that have only one series. One method of handling this problem has been to include all readily available measures and to give each equal weight. As the number of variables is increased, the relative weight of each is decreased and the chance of including any one characteristic out of proportion may be lessened. On the other hand, the assigning of equal weights to each measure would tend to weight a general characteristic disproportionately if sufficient supplementary measures of that characteristic were included. Weighting then would become a question of the number of measures to include around a general characteristic.

Another technique has been to group like variables and to combine them into composite indices measuring a larger whole than any of the particular parts. A familiar example of this is the Farm Plane of Living Index. The grouping of like variables and the construction of such component indices partially solves the problem of weighting by placing single variables into the larger context of which they are a part, and by reducing the number of variables with which one has to deal. Dr. Hagood has used a system of internal weighting of indices by factor analysis in her Level of Living Indexes.⁸ This method weights each trait according to the values of its coefficients of correlation with other traits. It would seem to be valid where the component series is taken to represent more than the sum of its

elements and also where the importance of a trait in the total picture is reflected by its degree of association with other traits.

But the first-order reduction of the number of variables through the construction of component indices does not completely solve the problem of weighting. There remains the question of the weights to assign each index in the regional picture. In Missouri we have handled this problem, or more correctly, have avoided it, by a process of correlation analysis.⁴ After the variables had been grouped and combined into indices, we computed coefficients of correlation for all possible combinations and found that two major indices set a pattern around which the rest could be grouped. The homogeneous areas were constructed by superimposing the regional pattern of the one major index on that of the other major index and defining each unit thus formed an area or sub-area. Here we had no problem of weighting. Either one or the other of the two major indices was highly correlated with and controlled the regional pattern of all other variables, and these two major variables were combined geographically and not quantitatively.

The technique was applicable in the case of Missouri, but there is no assurance that it would work in other states or for the United States as a whole. It worked in Missouri because all variables could be grouped around two major indices. If it should take three or four or more indices to control the entire group, the process of superimposing the patterns one upon the other would reduce the contiguous groupings to unreasonably small areas. This was somewhat the point that Lively and Almack reached in Ohio when they arrived at three sets of regions.⁵ Had they tried to use the method of superimposing all regions on one map the

⁸ Hagood, Margaret Jarman, "Development of a 1940 Rural-farm Level of Living Index for Counties", *Rural Sociology*, June, 1943, and "Construction of County Indexes for Measuring Change in Level of Living of Farm Operator Families, 1940-45", *Rural Sociology*, June, 1947.

⁴ Lively, C. E. and Gregory, C. L., *Rural Social Areas in Missouri*, Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, Research Bulletin 305, 1939.

⁵ Lively, C. E. and Almack, R. B., *A Method of Determining Rural Social Sub-Areas with Application to Ohio*, Ohio State University, Mimeograph Bulletin 106, 1938.

areas probably would have been too small to be of much use.

Dr. Hagood has suggested the extension of weighting by factor analysis into this area of the problem.⁶ By using the three sets of regions which Lively and Almack obtained for Ohio, i.e. Farm Plane of Living, Fertility Ratio, and Farm Income, Hagood derived a factor loading equation for their combination into one score. The method of weighting is the same as that mentioned earlier for the internal weighting of the level of living index. However, the objective for the combination is quite different in the two instances. In one we are trying to arrive at a general statement of the level of consumption, or of home conveniences, or of anything else that the plane of living index may represent aside from the direct elements that compose it. In the other, we are attempting to arrive at areas in which the characteristics follow a similar pattern. In the first instance, the elements are fairly highly correlated even though they need not be so. In the second instance, they are not highly correlated even though such condition is necessary. If the elements are highly correlated any system of weighting will produce about the same regional picture, but unless the elements are correlated sufficiently high we are averaging the presence of one trait against the absence of another. Factor analysis to combine unlike variables requires the adding together of factors that are unlike in their regional pattern. If one regional pattern is to be secured, some compromise is necessary. It does not follow, however, that a quantitative method of averaging is best throughout, even though it might be acceptable for some areas.

This shortcoming of the factor loading equation has been solved by Dr. Hagood in a delineation of regions for the United

States.⁷ The delineation is based upon population and agricultural data taken largely from the 1940 census, and uses the states as statistical units. The factor loading scores were obtained in the usual manner. In addition, coefficients of similarity were computed between all pairs of adjacent states and many non-adjacent pairs. These coefficients enables one to determine, for example, if an average score is obtained by adding opposite extreme values or if such average is the result of the combination of average values.

The coefficient of association as used in this manner supplements the factor loading scores by giving validity to them and it also serves as an independent statistic by which similarity between units can be judged.

Klimek used Pearson's coefficient of similarity in establishing cultural provinces among California Indian tribes.⁸ His method was to combine into larger cultural units those tribes among which there were high coefficients of similarity with respect to the traits they possessed. Other coefficients of similarity were used to combine traits into cultural strata (complexes), and to outline the cultural strata that distinguished the provinces. He made no use of a combined index or score to supplement the coefficients of similarity as described above for the work of Hagood.

The second step in the delineation of regions is that of actually drawing the boundary lines, and two main approaches have been used. One has been to accept given regions such as type-of-agriculture, topography, soil-type, etc., and to adjust the boundaries of these known regions to con-

⁷ Hagood, Margaret Jarman, "Statistical Methods for Delineation of Regions Applied to Data on Agriculture and Population", *Social Forces*, March 1943.

⁸ Klimek, Stanislaw, "The Structure of California Indian Culture", *University of California Publication in American Archaeology and Ethnology*, Vol. 37. See also: Clements, Forrest E.; Schneck, Sarah M.; and Brown, T. K., "A New Objective Method of Showing Special Relationship", *American Anthropologist*, 1928.

⁶ Hagood, Margaret Jarman; Davilensky, Nadia; and Beum, Corlin O., "An Examination of the Use of Factor Analysis in the Problem of Subregional Determination", *Rural Sociology*, September, 1941

form to the data at hand.⁹ The other approach has been to select core areas based upon the data being used and to expand these cores into full sized regions.¹⁰ Conceivably, either approach might arrive at the same set of regions. However, where there is some question, the acceptance of initial regions based upon type-of-farming, physiography, or some other similar characteristic presupposes a bio-physical determinism on sociological traits that may or may not exist.

The method of obtaining homogeneity has generally been to compare the border units, either townships, counties or states with the averages for the regions they adjoined and to shift the lines accordingly. This appears to be a valid device for reducing variation within regions and of obtaining contrasts between regions. The method is cumbersome, however, in that new regional averages must be computed each time a unit is shifted. A more satisfactory method would seem to be the coefficients of similarity used by Hagood, Klimek, Clements and others since this statistic reduces a large number of individual comparisons to summary coefficients. If, however, a large number of counties, states or other statistical units are involved, the number of possible pairs of adjoining units might increase the amount of work beyond the resources available for the work.

At this point, the question of whether units should be contiguous is presented. This depends upon the purpose that the regional delineation is to serve, and the choice and opinion of the individual. In instances where the most homogeneous units are not contiguous, homogeneity must be sacrificed for contiguity or vice versa. The problem can be avoided by defining the di-

vided areas as separate regions, but this might produce a larger number of regions or smaller regions than was desired. If contiguity is to be secured, it must often be imposed by sacrificing part of the homogeneity that would otherwise exist in a non-contiguous region. Dr. Hagood has suggested a measure of horizontal and vertical distances from a point of origin at one corner of the map as a means of imposing contiguity on the region.¹¹ By placing these two distance variables in a factor loading equation, she obtained contiguity for the non-contiguous counties that Lively and Almack outlined in Ohio. Distance is the factor involved in keeping the counties apart or bringing them together, and if contiguity is desired, relative distance becomes a valid factor to include in the regionalization process. However, the addition of vertical and horizontal distances to county scores tends to make the counties on one diagonal alike and those on the opposite diagonal different. If we consider the distance variables only and assume equal weighting, all the scores on one diagonal would be alike, while all those on the opposite diagonal would be different. The result is that it is easier to include in a region a unit that lies in one direction than a unit that lies in another direction, even though there is no difference in the value of the two units with respect to the major variables for which homogeneity is desired.

It would seem that a measure of the relative distances to be taken along radii from the cores or centers of the various regions might be a more usable statistic. This might complicate a factor loading equation, but it provides a more realistic approach to the problem. Relative distances from the cores of the regions or cultural centers also would seem to be a measure of cultural variation since the intensity and use of a trait would appear to be different at the periphery than at the center. This is not to say that all areas should or would form an approximate circle around the cultural core. The distance values from a given cultural center

⁹ Odum, Howard W., *Southern Regions of the United States*. Also Mangus, A. R., *Rural Regions of the United States*, Work Projects Administration, Washington, D. C., 1940.

¹⁰ Woofter, T. J., Jr., "The Subregions of the Southeast", *Social Forces*, October 1934. Also Lively and Almack, *Op. Cit.*, and others.

¹¹ Hagood, Davilensky, and Beum, *Op. Cit.*

might be expressed as a relative of its distance to a second cultural center, or as a relative of the distance between the two cultural centers. Such relative measures would minimize the possibility of any fixed pattern being imposed upon the areas. In Missouri the lines of demarcation were generally pronounced, and both contiguous and homogeneous areas could be obtained without a special device for a consideration of relative distances.

The third step or phase in the determination of regions is a check on the validity of areas outlined. The validity of the areas depends upon the soundness of the methods used throughout in the delineation. However, certain checks provide us with some knowledge of the extent to which we can with confidence accept our regional delineation.

One check is to determine whether the difference between the means of the regions is statistically significant. This test can be made by the usual formula for the standard error of the difference between means, or by the use of Fisher's analysis of variance technique.¹³ The first seems more applicable for this check since it directly involves a test of each region with every other region. In the usual application of the analysis of variance, one may learn that the means of two of the regions are significantly different without learning much about the difference between the means of the rest of the regions.

The obtaining of significant differences between means of regions is a minimum standard. It cannot be accepted as a maxi-

mum criterion for judging the worth of the regional delineation. The delineation of areas for purposes of formulating and administering regional programs demands that the regions be significantly different. But, in addition, the variation should be reduced to such an extent that it is more efficient to consider separate regions than to work with the entire area as a whole. To test the worth of a regional delineation, we need to know what proportionate reduction in the total variation should be obtained by each division. The coefficient of variation for each region as compared with the coefficient of variation in the entire area or universe should furnish a basis for judgment. The analysis of variance technique permits us to allocate the total variation in an area to that which exists within regions and that which exists because the regions are different. With these statistics as a starting point, and by working with areas that have known lines of demarcation we might devise more rigid standards to judge the worth of regional delineation and the concept of regionalism.

To date, many of the techniques for regionalization have been invented as problems have arisen. Often these devices have been makeshift and unwieldy manipulations which have not and perhaps cannot be tested in other situations. The exploratory nature of the research on regionalization has prohibited definite and completely formulated plans in advance. More of this exploratory work may remain to be done. Nevertheless, we need to use more reliable definite, and valid techniques if the results of one researcher is to be tested by that of another.

C. L. GREGORY.

University of Missouri.

¹³ Hagood, Margaret Jarman, *Statistics for Sociologist*, Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., New York, 1941. pp. 434 and 587.

NEEDED POPULATION DATA FOR AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL ANALYSIS*

The ultimate significance of data on food and agriculture is realized only when such

data are placed in conjunction with population data. The volume of production, the composition of agricultural output, transfers of products from one area to another, all these are just so many statistics in a

* Read at annual meeting of the Population Association of America, Philadelphia, May 22, 1948.

vacuum until they can be translated into measures of levels of adequacy and placed in relief against areas of surplus and areas of need. Statistics of production and exchange no doubt have meaning so far as business and commercial interests are concerned, but markets and prices do not accurately reflect the distribution of hunger and malnutrition.

A question that is most persistently directed at the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, both in words and in the situation itself, is: Will there be enough food? The answer to the question depends on a number of politico-socio-economic factors and not just on the benevolent intentions and program of FAO. But the gauging of sheer physical potentialities is the province of FAO, and these potentialities can be determined only on the basis of adequate data. If the peoples of the world, acting through their governments, are to proceed effectively in increasing production and achieving a reasonably equitable distribution of the resultant supplies, they must know what the needs are in terms of population and where the needs lie.

We may assume that the intention is to proceed along these lines and not to sit by and rattle the bones of Malthus by way of an excuse for doing little or nothing. Unqualified success in the undertaking is not expected overnight and may never be achieved, but the prospects for success cannot even be appraised without better information than we now have.

For many parts of the world the situation as it exists today with respect to the adequacy of food supplies, levels of nutrition, effective use of agricultural manpower, distribution of food and income, and rural welfare in general is known only in the broadest outlines. Much more precise and searching knowledge is necessary before a truly effective program can be planned. Every trend of our time, social, economic and psychic, speaks for the "world approach." Statistics must embrace these trends and furnish us with data that are comparable and comprehensive.

General Population Characteristics

Thus, although the Food and Agriculture Organization is chiefly interested in the proposed 1950 World Census of Agriculture, it also has a vital interest in the censuses of population. A primary need is for a complete count of consumers, including tribal, nomadic, and aboriginal consumers. Such a count must make no reduction in numbers for "comparability with prior censuses," but must allow, rather, for excluded groups and under-enumeration wherever an adequate estimate is possible. Co-ordinate with this need is the need for population projections extending well into the future so that prospective demand can be estimated and plans made accordingly.

National *de facto* and *de jure* counts are both needed wherever the difference between the two is greater than negligible. Displaced persons, stateless persons, members of armed forces and civilians stationed in other countries than their own are all eating out of the food supplies and need to be taken into account when the immediate and local food situation is being considered. When trends and prospects for population growth are being evaluated, the habitually resident population is ordinarily the relevant statistic.

Beyond these basic items, a whole host of general population data are grist for the analytical mill:

Age data for refined estimating of food requirements, both as to amount and kind;

Labor force data for assessing productivity and potentials;

Social data for the study of interrelations between diet and mortality, morbidity, educational levels, mobility, ethnic composition, income, fertility, family organization, etc.

These analyses can be as wide as the horizons of international comparability can be pushed and as deep as the well of information can be driven.

For example, in connection with the improvement of diets it is important to increase our knowledge of desirable targets.

Many questions relating to adequate diets are either unanswered or are still in dispute among nutritionists. Not all the answers are to be found under the microscope. Comparisons of demographic characteristics classified by dietary characteristics should produce evidence that will assist in these researches. A study reported in the *Population Index* about a year ago indicates a striking correspondence between national income and calorie levels, and quantifies in a preliminary way the inverse relation between these and the general death rate for some 60 to 70 countries.¹ The kind of approach laid down in this study should be exploited for its fullest contribution to our knowledge of the interrelationships of food, health, and economic welfare.

Agricultural Population

Study of the world's position with reference to food and agriculture requires information on the size and characteristics of the agricultural and rural segments of the population. It is, of course, possible to obtain considerable information on the agricultural population in censuses of agriculture, and FAO is suggesting that such information be obtained in 1950. However, in the interest of a consistent distinction between the agricultural and the nonagricultural population and in the interest of securing more detailed and direct demographic information than a census of agriculture can readily furnish, FAO has recommended that governments obtain information on their agricultural population in their population censuses rather than in their agricultural census wherever both types of census are being taken.

The process of defining and measuring the population directly concerned with agricultural production is a complex one. A recent report prepared in collaboration with FAO and published by the United Nations deals

with this problem in some detail.² As indicated by this report, possible criteria for defining the agricultural population are (1) occupational affiliation with agriculture, (2) dependence upon agriculture for income or livelihood, and (3) residence on farms. The first of these has been fairly widely used; the second hardly at all; the last (farm residence) has been used by several countries, but represents the least desirable approach from the international point of view, chiefly because in some areas agricultural workers tend to live in towns and villages rather than on the holdings they operate.

Actually, as of the present, the main problem is not how, precisely, to define the agricultural population, but rather to persuade the governments to measure the agricultural population at all. The practice of classifying the population into agricultural and nonagricultural categories is much less common than, say, the practice of classifying the population into urban and rural categories.

In one sense, the distinctness of the agricultural population may be said to be disappearing, especially in highly industrialized countries where agriculture is taking on many of the features of a regularized large-scale industry and where cultural differentiation is losing its force. But in another sense, with the present world scarcity of food and the prospect of an even more acute situation in the absence of organized and concerted action, the agricultural population may be regarded as of great and increasing strategic importance, and the need for data as correspondingly urgent.

Among the kinds of analysis that are made possible as such data become available are the relating of the agricultural population to production and to areas under cultivation, the measurement of certain aspects of productivity and efficiency, the gauging of the extent to which the agricultural population is pressing on the

¹ "Food, Income, and Mortality," *Population Index*, Vol. 13, No. 2, April 1947, School of Public Affairs, Princeton University, and Population Association of America, Inc. 96-103.

² *Studies of Census Methods*, No. 3, "Problems of Defining, Identifying, and Measuring the Agricultural Population."

land, and the study of the situation and condition of that part of the population which produces the world's food supply, with a view to improving that situation and thereby increasing the world's food supply.

Some of the types of analysis cited above can be effectively made on the basis of data on the agricultural labor force rather than on the entire population that is dependent upon agriculture, but here there is a serious problem in comparability. Even for as highly developed and as relatively homogeneous an area as Europe, definitions and practices differ enough so that international comparability within the region is seriously restricted. For example, some of the European countries recognize the female as a part of the labor force and others do not; some classify women engaged in housework as workers and others do not. This is particularly important with respect to the agricultural labor force. Actually, farm women are among the most overworked groups in the entire population, but even in this country the tendency has been to dismiss their labors as "chores" and to classify them as nonworkers. On the whole, variations in the definition of the agricultural population seem less likely to affect comparability than variations in the definition of the agricultural labor force. With the former, all degrees of participation within a given household would ordinarily be classified into the agricultural population, and the marginal individuals would not constitute a source of noncomparability.

Another source from which it is hoped to obtain valuable data in the 1950 census program is the collation of the results of population and agricultural censuses.^{*} By this means population groups can be related to types of farms in terms of value or volume of products, prevailing crops, size of area under cultivation, tenure status, etc. With the prospects good for a large number of censuses of agriculture in or around 1950,

^{*}For a detailed discussion of problems and possibilities, see United Nations, *Studies of Census Methods*, No. 1, "Collation of Results of Population and Agricultural Censuses."

the possibilities for increasing available knowledge through cross-fertilization with population censuses are enormous. If some indication is secured at the time of enumeration whereby the farm schedule can be identified with the population schedules, not only of the farm operator, but of all other persons connected with the holding either through occupation or through economic dependence, the process of coding and tabulation can be made to produce materials of great value for the thorough understanding of the agricultural situation.

Rural Population

One of the basic objectives of the Food and Agriculture Organization, as stated in the preamble to its Constitution, is "to better the conditions of rural populations." The concept "rural population" is not always clearly distinguishable from the concept "agricultural population." The terms are oftener used interchangeably. Actually, the two populations overlap heavily, no matter how they are defined. But the sharpening and refining of definitions is one of the methods by which, in the course of time, not only international comparability but precision and accuracy of results may be achieved. The concept "agricultural population" is usually associated with an approach that is basically economic; the concept "rural population" with an approach that is basically geographic. Typically, the rural population is a residual in the process of classifying the population in accordance with size or degree of concentration.

The similarity or overlapping that does exist between agricultural population and rural population (rural in the sense just indicated) has been the source of considerable confusion. The report of the Committee on the Definition of the Rural Population of the International Statistical Institute, which was presented at the Prague meeting in 1938, showed that representatives of the various nations entertained quite opposing views, and entertained them with great emotional intensity, as to whether the rural population should be

defined in terms of agriculture or in terms of dispersion. Several of the considerations that underlie these disagreements are genuinely important in relation to the development of international statistics, but both the occupational and the distributional aspects of a population are appropriate subjects for study. The coincidence of agriculture and dispersion at the rural end of the continuum should not vitiate either approach. The most logical and clean-cut solution to the problem, it would seem, is to recognize the differences inherent in the two classification systems (the economic and the distributional) and to retain each in its own context, with the agricultural-non-agricultural dichotomy representing the economic approach and the urban-rural dichotomy representing the geographic approach.

The distributional approach views the rural population in the context of country versus city and involves considerations of legal status, corporate limits, local government, political organization, and the like that arise in the process of defining and identifying the urban agglomeration. Although it is theoretically possible to obtain an accurate classification of a population by size of agglomeration with a final category designated as "rural," the development of such a classification is complicated by an imperfect correspondence between the demographic limits of a concentration and official geographic boundary lines which are known to the inhabitants and can be identified by the census-taker. For refined demographic analysis, an accurate classification is essential, but for many other purposes an urban-rural classification that follows official boundaries is desirable in order that noncensus data (vital statistics, for example) may be segregated into the same categories and related to an appropriate base. Naturally, both of these sets of purposes ought to be served. It is to be hoped that the strain will not be too great upon the census resources of the several countries.

The importance of the foregoing, so far as problems of food and agriculture are

concerned, lies in the increased possibilities for diversified types of analysis and for a continuing series of data that can be related to the rural population but not to the agricultural population. Since the agricultural population is predominantly open-country population, the spatial or distributional approach is valuable. Environmental factors such as political organization, sanitation, housing, medical facilities, educational, recreational, and religious institutions, which are more or less patterned in space, can be advantageously analysed. So, although the proportion of the rural population that is agricultural may vary from country to country, it is still important that the frame of reference of the rural population be as consistent as possible from country to country.

On the other hand, a necessary area of investigation consists of comparisons between the urban and rural situations. Such comparisons, being heavily weighted with the highly concentrated populations on the urban side and with the agricultural and dispersed population on the rural side, can tolerate considerable variation in the placement of the line that is drawn through the intermediate segment to divide the urban from the rural.

Regional Analysis

So much for world-wide considerations. There is another aspect of international comparability which appears at the regional level. Problems of food and agriculture, like many others, tend to fall into regional patterns. This regionalization is not simply a matter of geographic convenience, but rather an organic emergence of problems that disregard national political boundaries and yet are relatively localized in scope—problems that cannot be adequately dealt with except through the cooperation of the countries involved, and often with the assistance of other parts of the world.

It is in relation to the localized or regional aspect of problems in food and agriculture that comparable population data, particularly data relating to the agricultural

and rural population, are most urgently required. Standard definitions and uniform census practices are, of course, desired on as nearly a world-wide basis as possible; but because of differences in social organization, perfect comparability of concepts may not always be possible, particularly as between widely separated and culturally dissimilar areas. However, these types of difference would be less likely to be important within a given region, where comparability rather than comparisons would be the chief object. That is to say, an essential part of regional analysis would be the combining of data for the various countries into totals for the region as a whole. As FAO's regional activities are intensified and regional offices are established, the demand for larger and larger

amounts of truly comparable population data will become more imperative.

A crowning need in the population field is one that goes beyond raw census data. This need is for the results of a more and more searching demographic analysis—an analysis that in turn depends for effectiveness upon the abundance of accurate and comparable basic data. Population dynamics are of painful importance in relation to problems of an adequate food supply, not only as they clarify the current situation, but as they reveal prospects for our demographic future unto the first and second generations to come.

HOPE TISDALE ELDRIDGE.

Food and Agriculture Organization
of the United Nations.

A SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE ADOPTION OF IMPROVED FARMING PRACTICES

The behavior of farmers toward certain agricultural programs and the farming practices recommended by them is being studied in a Piedmont tobacco-growing community of North Carolina. This aspect of rural life is being studied primarily as a problem of technological change which involves the replacement of older methods and practices of farming with newer ones. The agricultural programs influencing this change in the community studied include the Agricultural Extension Service, the vocational agricultural program of the high-school, the Soil Conservation Service and the Agricultural Conservation Program of the Production Marketing Administration.

The purpose of this study is (1) to contribute to an understanding of the behavior of farmers with respect to the programs of agencies concerned with the improvement of farming methods and technology and (2) to demonstrate a method of studying the causal factors of change in rural life from a socio-psychological point of view. The study is seeking answers to the questions: What are some of the significant social and psychological variables which will help

to explain resistance to, as well as cooperation with, the agricultural programs? and, How can these variables be isolated and studied most effectively?

Because of the exploratory nature of the study it was limited to only one community. The community selected for study includes approximately 320 farm operators and has a town with a population of approximately 500. All except a few farmers obtain most of their income from tobacco and two-thirds of the farms are operated primarily with family labor. The community is one which has been slow to adopt methods recommended by the agricultural agencies but has made rapid progress in the past ten years. As a measure of this change sample farm operators were rated with respect to eight different improved farm practices together with the year in which the practice was first adopted. The total number of practices adopted and the time of their adoption thereby gives two indices to the progress made in the adoption of improved farming practices.

The initial stage of the study consisted of the completion of schedules for a one-third

sample of the 320 farm operators of the community. These provided pertinent social and economic data, information on the adoption of eight recommended farm practices and information on the specific nature of cooperation with the respective agricultural agencies. The second stage of the study consisted of intensive interviews with 84 farm owner operators, all except eight of which had been contacted previously for obtaining the schedules. These were designed to provide three kinds of data: (1) conceptions of and attitudes toward the agricultural programs, (2) attitudes toward other areas of the farmers' experience such as education, religion, exchange of work, farmers' organizations and tobacco marketing and (3) specific accounts of behavior involving cooperation with the agricultural programs or the adoption of improved farming practices. Attitudes toward the agricultural programs as well as toward other

areas of experience were obtained by sets of questions with varying degrees of directness. Non-directive techniques were used for the purpose of stimulating complete responses on the part of the informant. In addition to the information obtained from the schedules and interviews numerous notes were made from conversations and observations during the four months in the field. These will be used to describe the operation of the agricultural programs in the community and how the farmers have reacted to them.

The practical result of studies of this nature should be the development of some guiding principles for predicting the degree of cooperation of farmers with agricultural programs designed to promote technological improvement and for the more effective implementation of those programs.

EUGENE A. WILKENING.

N. C. State College.

CURRENT BULLETIN REVIEWS

Edited by Walter C. McKain, Jr. †

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

(*Indicates bulletins reviewed in this issue. Numbers appearing by each review refer to corresponding number in the list of publications.)

1. Anderson, Harry G. *Farmers' Cooperative Marketing and Purchasing Associations*. No. Dakota Agr. Col. Ext. Circ. 191. 28 pp. Fargo, April 1948.
2. Anderson, W. A. *Bibliography of the Department of Rural Sociology, Cornell University*. N. Y. State Col. of Agr. Bul. 20. 35 pp. Ithaca, Oct. 1948.
3. Bondurant, John H. and Bishop, Charles E. *Farm Wage Workers in Central Kentucky*. Kentucky Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 522. 30 pp. Lexington, July 1948.
4. Carey, Jane Perry Clark. *The Role of Uprooted People in European Recovery*. National Planning Assoc. Planning Pamphlet 64. 84 pp. Washington, Oct. 1948. \$1.00.
5. Christensen, Raymond P. *Efficient Use of Food Resources in the United States*. U. S. Dept. Agr. Tech. Bul. 963. Washington, Oct. 1948. 25 cents.
6. Ciriacy-Wantrup, S. V. *Major Economic Forces Affecting Agriculture—With Particular Reference to California*. Univ. of Calif. Agr. Exp. Sta. 76 pp. Berkeley, Dec. 1947.
7. Colorado Library Association. *Mountain-Plains Library Conference Proceedings*. 47 pp. Estes Park, Oct. 1948.
8. Cross, A. J. and Johnston, P. E. *A Survey of Illinois Farm Labor in 1946*. Illinois Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 528. 33 pp.. Urbana, April 1948.
9. DeLany, Dorothy and Caulum, Vera A. *Farm Women Look at the Home Bureau*. Cornell Univ. Ext. Bul. 754. 20 pp. Ithaca, Sept. 1948.
10. Felton, Ralph A. *The Church and the Land*. Drew Theological Seminary. Dept. of the Rural Church. 45 pp. Madison, N. J., 1947.
11. Hill, George W. *Texas-Mexican Migratory Agricultural Workers in Wisconsin*. Wisc. Agr. Expt. Sta. Sten. Bul. 6. 20 pp. Madison, May 1948.
- *12. Hoffer, Charles R. *Health and Health Services for Michigan Farm Families*. Mich. Agr. Expt. Sta. Spec. Bul. 352. 54 pp. East Lansing, Sept. 1948.
- *13. Hoffsommer, Harold. *Land Tenure in the Southwestern States*. Arkansas Agr. Expt. Sta. 31 pp. Fayetteville, Oct. 1948.
- *14. Johnston, Helen L. *Cooperation for Rural Health*. U. S. Dept. Agr., Farm Credit Admin. 55 pp. Washington, Sept. 1948.
- *15. Kaufman, Harold F. *Religious Organization in Kentucky*. Kentucky Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 524. 44 pp. Lexington, August. 1948.
- *16. Kohl, Martha. *Youth Action Programs*. Rural Youth of the U. S. 48 pp. Marietta, Ohio, 1948. \$1.00.
17. Larsen, Harald C. and Johnson, Neil W. *Managing Farm Finances*. U. S. Dept. Agr. Misc. Pub. 652. 69 pp. Washington, Sept. 1948. 20 cents.
- *18. Leonard, Olen E. *The Role of the Land Grant in the Social Organization and Social Processes of a Spanish-American Village in New Mexico*. 154 pp. May 1943. \$2.00. (May be obtained at Texas Bookstore, Univ. of Texas, Austin).
19. Leonard, Olen E. *Santa Cruz, Estudio Economico Social de Una Region*. 103 pp. La Paz, Bolivia, 1948.
- *20. Lewis, Oscar. *On the Edge of the Black Waxy*. Washington Univ. 110 pp. St. Louis, 1948.

† Assisted by Elsie S. Manny.

- *21. Lionberger, Herbert F. *Low-Income Farmers in Missouri: Situation and Characteristics of 459 Farm Operators in Four Social Area B. Counties*. Univ. of Missouri Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 413. 32 pp. Columbia, April 1948.
- *22. Lively, C. E. and Gregory, C. L. *Rural Social Areas in Missouri*. Univ. of Missouri Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 414. 25 pp. Columbia, April 1948.
23. Love, A. B. and Gaston, H. P. *Michigan's Emergency Farm Labor, 1943-1947*. Mich. State Col. Ext. Bul. 288. 35 pp. East Lansing, Dec. 1947.
24. Maryland University. *Farm Labor in Wartime. A Report of the Maryland Emergency Farm Labor Program, 1943-1947*. Colleges of Agr. and Home Econ. Ext. Serv. 31 pp. College Park, 1948.
25. Mason, John E. and Bondurant, John H. *Land Ownership and Use in Kentucky*. Kentucky Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 519. 32 pp. Lexington, June 1948.
- *26. Mather, W. G. *The Use of Health Services in Two Southern Pennsylvania Communities*. Penn. State Col. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 504. 38 pp. State College, July 1948.
- *27. Mayo, Selz C. and Fullerton, Kie Sebastian. *Medical Care in Green County*. No. Carolina Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 363. 31 pp. Raleigh, Nov. 1948.
- *28. Nelson, Lowry. *Can Farmers Afford To Live Better?* National Planning Assoc. Planning Pamphlet 65. 32 pp. Washington, Nov. 1948. 50 cents.
29. Niederfrank, E. J. *Discussion Method and Group Process for Extension Work*. U. S. Dept. Agr. Ext. Serv. Circ. 452. Washington, July 1948.
30. Niederfrank, E. J. *Rural Life Facts and Trends*. National Education Assoc. and Rural Youth of the U. S. 25 pp. Washington, Sept. 1948.
- *31. Oyler, Merton D. *Neighborhood Standing and Population Changes in Johnson and Robertson Counties, Kentucky*. Kentucky Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 523. 48 pp. Lexington, Aug. 1948.
- *32. Reist, H. N. and Frutche, F. P. *Pennsylvania Radio Study*. Penn. State Col. Agr. Ext. Serv. 16 pp. State College. (No date given.)
33. Taylor, Charles A. *Twenty Years of Extension Broadcasting. 1925-1945*. N. Y. Col. Ext. Bul. 726. 43 pp. Ithaca, July 1947.
34. Taylor, Morris H. *How to Get and Hold Farm Labor*. Utah Agr. Col. Ext. Bul. 161. 21 pp. Logan, March 1948.
35. Turner, Howard B. and Bell, Florence C. *Bibliography on Cooperation in Agriculture*. U. S. Dept. Agr. Library. 178 pp. Washington, June 1948. 85 cents.
36. U. S. Dept. Agr. Bur. of Human Nutrition and Home Econ. *Family Food Consumption in Birmingham, Alabama, Winter 1948*. Agr. Res. Admin. 30 pp. Washington, Nov. 1948.
37. U. S. Dept. Agr. Bur. of Human Nutrition and Home Econ. in cooperation with Bur. of Agr. Econ. *Outlook Charts—Rural Family Living*. 103 pp. Washington, 1948.
38. U. S. Dept. Agr. Bur. of Human Nutrition and Home Econ. *Rural Family Living*. Annual Outlook Issue. 45 pp. Washington, Oct. 1948.
39. U. S. Dept. of Commerce, Bur. of Agr. Census; U. S. Dept. Agr., Bur. of Agr. Econ. *Graphic Summary of Farm Tenure in the United States*. Govt. Printing Office. 40 pp. Washington, 1948. 25 cents.
40. Wallrabenstein, Paul P. *Wages and Wage Rates of Hired Farm Workers: United States and Major Regions, Jan. 1947*. U. S. Dept. Agr. Bur. of Agr. Econ. 57 pp. Washington, Sept. 1948.
41. Whelpton, P. K. and others. *Forecasts of the Population of the United States—1945-1975*. U. S. Dept. Commerce, Bur. of the Census. 113 pp. Washington, 1947.
42. World Today, Inc. *A Proposed Health Film Program for America*. 35 pp. 450 W. 56th St., New York, 1948. \$1.00.

*Joint Committee Report on Extension Programs, Policies and Goals*¹

This report deserves careful reading not only by rural sociologists but by all professional workers in the colleges of agriculture, by employees of the United States Department of Agriculture, and by laymen interested in the United States Extension Service. It was prepared by a joint committee appointed in 1946 consisting of ten members, five of whom were selected by the United States Department of Agriculture and the other five by the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. Roy M. Green, President of Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College, was Chairman of the Committee until forced to resign because of illness in December, 1947. From that date, John A. Hannah, President of Michigan State College, served as Chairman.

Most of the personnel appointed by the Association of Land-Grant Colleges were college presidents. Three of the five members appointed by the Department of Agriculture were drawn from outside the government service. The task assigned the committee was to study and make recommendations on the programs, policies, and goals of the Cooperative Extension Service.

The report contains 72 pages of condensed summaries and recommendations. A few of the more significant conclusions which may be of interest to readers of *Rural Sociology* are:

1. The primary function of the Cooperative Extension Service in agriculture and home economics is education.

2. The responsibilities of the Extension Service are not limited to farm people—or even to rural residents. "Its obligation, as stated in the Smith-Lever Act, is to 'the people of the United States . . . not attending or resident in said colleges.' This obligation of disseminating the agricultural and home economics teachings of the col-

leges and the United States Department of Agriculture extends to all interested people in this country irrespective of their place of residence, their age, their group affiliation, race, creed, economic or social status or other characteristics that might be used to draw lines of distinction." (p. 8.) (A somewhat inconsistent situation in this regard which was apparently overlooked by the committee, however, is the fact that although extension is supposed to be for "all interested people," the funds of the Smith-Lever Act are allotted to states largely on the basis of their rural population.)

The committee makes especial mention of the following groups which should receive attention from the Extension Service: (a) part-time farmers and non-commercial farmers; (b) urban workers maintaining homes in rural areas; (c) industrial groups living and working in rural communities, and (d) the non-farm residents of towns and villages. (No mention is made of "farm laborers" in this connection, although I assume their omission was not deliberate.) This would seem to envisage a much wider clientele than customarily served by extension agencies in most states.

3. The subject matter covered by extension is rapidly expanding. The early emphasis was on the immediate problems of the farm and home. These are still important but greater emphasis should also be placed on helping people to help themselves. The problems of the individual are often bound up with those of the groups in which he lives. Extension workers should act as an integrating force in helping rural people solve the many interrelated and continually expanding problems which affect their lives. "This committee would point out that farm life is not lived in segments or projects. It is lived as a whole." (p. 38.)

4. The Extension Service has the responsibility for encouraging a coordinated approach to the solution of community problems. It should work with all existing organizations and agencies on a voluntary basis. The committee expresses the con-

¹ *Joint Committee Report on Extension Programs, Policies and Goals*. U. S. Department of Agriculture and Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. Washington, D. C., August, 1948.

viction "that it is not sound public policy for extension to give preferred service to any farm organization or to be in a position of being charged with such actions. The committee is further convinced that it would be in the public interest for any formal operating relationships between the Extension Service and any general farm organization such as the Farm Bureau to be discontinued at the earliest possible moment." (p. 20.) It is asserted as the opinion of the committee that "the extension service can function most effectively only when it is recognized as a public agency available to and operating in the interests of all on an equal basis." (p. 20.)

5. With reference to the place of extension in Land-Grant Colleges, the committee concludes that without full coordination of the three college functions—teaching, research and extension—the extension service cannot function with maximum efficiency. It is recommended (a) that responsibility for coordination of resident teaching, research and extension be placed under one administrative head, and (b) that each subject-matter program of the three be combined into one department. Subject-matter departments can also be strengthened by housing workers in each subject-matter field together, and by appropriate cooperation in publications, in field testing of experimental findings, and in an occasional exchange of responsibilities.

6. A wide variety of teaching methods is required. Individual counselling and demonstration are still important, but have definite limitations. Discussion groups are excellent for public-affairs education as well as for attacking local problems. Bulletins and other informational media—particularly radio—are of increasing importance. "This committee believes that with the varied expansion of scientific knowledge, and the desirability in many areas of some diversification, the average farm family

needs the help of more generalists rather than of more specialists. They need a competent interpreter and integrator of usable facts." (p. 39.)

7. The training of extension workers now justifies special consideration in college curricula. In-service training, regular leaves of absence, appointment to the college staff with comparable rank and salary and regular promotion would improve the quality of Extension Service personnel.

8. "Extension has a broad and growing responsibility. If it is to serve fully the total national welfare, it needs an expanded staff and a better trained staff, and it should place increased emphasis on developing more efficient methods." (p. 56.) "Only by further researches in extension methods can reliable appraisals be made of extension teaching and extension programs. As new demands are made of extension, it should be recognized that there is an alternative to hiring greater numbers of extension workers. Through the use of research, more accurate determinations can be made as to when a given project has reached or passed its point of diminishing value. Also, research can contribute to appraisal of various techniques for doing the same job. It is encouraging to note that progress is being made in scientifically approaching this task of measuring results. The need is simply for more work along these lines." (p. 67.)

These are but a few of the many important observations found in this report. In the reviewer's opinion, it is commendable and significant that a government agency should be thoroughly examined, its accomplishments noted, its problems explicitly stated, its structure and policies analyzed, and its goals outlined. Other federal and state agencies should be appraised with the same spirit of public service.

NATHAN L. WHETTEN.

The University of Connecticut.

Population

[18] A study has been made of the influence of the Spanish and Mexican land

* A dissenting minority report was presented on this last point by H. P. Rusk, Dean and Director of the College of Agriculture of the University of Illinois.

grants upon the social organization and processes of El Cerrito, a rural, Spanish-American village in northern New Mexico. The author spent about seven months in the village recording case histories of the people, becoming acquainted with their attitudes and opinions and collecting statistical data on the nature and history of land holdings. The findings are applicable to the whole Spanish-American area in the north-central part of the state.

The original Spanish and Mexican land grants consisted of the common grazing lands used by the entire settlement and irrigable tracts assigned to individual families. This was conducive to the development of a few leading families in control of the stock raising, and a laboring group. With the coming of the American land system based on definite titles, common lands which had been used by the people for almost a century were turned into public domain and families were left with only their small holdings which simply provided a home site and a garden. This reduced almost all of the families to a low economic level so that few class distinctions remained. The low level of living, and poor health conditions are reflected in the high infant mortality rate. The men have been forced to seek employment as migratory farm workers in the surrounding states in order to supplement the little food which the women and children can raise on the small irrigable tracts.

The church has always exerted a powerful influence in the area. Each land grant made specific provision for incorporating the people into the church although no provision was made for the building or maintenance of schools. Consequently, popular education has been neglected and the illiteracy rate is high. Families support the church but show little interest in the school. Their social life centers around the church and the local dances in which all ages participate.

The people have maintained their village type of settlement as well as much of the old Spanish culture. The isolation of the

villages has been due to lack of modern transportation and also to the fact that much of the land formerly held in common has now passed into the ownership of people who consider themselves superior to the Spanish-Americans and have little social contact with them.

[21] The bulletin, *Low-Income Farmers in Missouri*, describes the characteristics and attitudes of 459 full-time farm operators living in DeKalb, Shelby, Boone, and Vernon counties. The households selected for interview represented the lower one-third of the operators from the standpoint of the value of the farm products sold from their farms. Their average receipts were 763 dollars per year, less than half that of all farmers in the area. Data were obtained on age, race, nativity, mobility, tenure status, group membership, size of household and facilities, employment of youth, size of farm, sources and amount of income, and farm facilities of the operators. One-fifth of the farmers named soil depletion (and related problems) as one of the most important problems. Most of the farmers said they liked to farm and three-fourths said they would choose farming again if they had the choice to make over. Half of the operators gave "the freedom of being their own boss" as the chief advantage of living on the farm. Nine out of ten favored retaining the one-family farm as the basic unit of agricultural production and farm life. The majority were favorable to vocational, agricultural, and 4-H club work and wanted more information about farming.

[31] A study of *Neighborhood Standing and Population Changes in Johnson and Robertson Counties, Kentucky* reports on differences in social position among rural families. Data obtained from fellow residents were used in arranging families into 10 ranks of neighborhood standing. Ratings were assigned to 264 families in Johnson County and 295 in Robertson County. "Differences among families, in neighborhood standing, were found to be correlated with the following characteristics representing

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levels of living: occupation, educational level, house condition and value, rooms per person, and possession of automobile, telephone, and radio." In some cases neighborhood standing was affected by other factors than level of living, such as community service or deviation from local codes of conduct. No consistent relation was found between neighborhood standing and changes in population, fertility, and migration.

Rural Organization

[20] *On the Edge of the Black Waxy*^a is a cultural survey of Bell County, Texas. The eastern half of the county is cotton country with rich, black, sticky soils, locally known as "Black Waxy." Although the cotton South has left a deep imprint on Bell County residents, it has not dominated their lives. The plantation system never took root; family-sized farms are found in large numbers; Negroes are not basic to the agricultural economy; tenure distinctions are lightly held; and the residents enjoy a relatively high level of living. The western half of Bell County is cattle country and the romance of the cowboy exercises an influence in the county far beyond the numerical significance of its ranchers. Small clusters of Czech and German farmers and the presence of a thriving urban center add to the heterogeneity of the Bell County population.

The county is a unifying factor in the social organization of the inhabitants. The people of Bell County—Negroes, Whites, Mexicans, townspeople, country people, cotton farmers, ranchers, pecan growers, cedar choppers, and charcoal burners alike—are aware of the county and identify themselves with it. Schools are unifying units within the community and yet some of the more severe conflicts between ethnic groups occur in the area of school organization.

The current trends of most significance to the rural social organization of Bell County

are (1) a decrease in rural population, (2) changes in agricultural production, particularly the shift away from cotton, (3) a decline in the number of farms and an increase in their size, (4) increasing mechanization, and (5) the decline and re-ordering of rural communities.

Levels of Living

[28] Increased farm incomes are not automatically translated into higher levels of living. Although farmers today are relatively prosperous, there is considerable room for improvement in their living conditions. Housing, diets, health, education and the amount of leisure time are all areas in the level of living of farm people where improvements are needed. The customs, traditions, and value systems of farm people, as well as their incomes, govern changes in their living conditions. To the question, *Can Farmers Afford To Live Better?*, the author, Lowry Nelson, says that farm people cannot afford not to raise their level of living.

[22] Only a few changes were recorded in the boundaries of *Rural Social Areas in Missouri* between 1930 and 1940 and there were even fewer changes in the boundaries of the rural-farm social areas. Agriculture in Missouri ranges from a semi-subsistence type in the Ozarks to highly commercialized farming in southeast and northwest Missouri. The industrial activities and the composition of the population also exhibit wide variation. It was possible, however, to delineate six fairly homogeneous rural social areas and a number of sub-areas. Descriptions of these areas and sub-areas comprise the content of this bulletin.

Tenure Status

[13] *Land Tenure in the Southwestern States* is the summary chapter of a regional report on land tenure soon to be published by the University of North Carolina Press. Three major questions are posed: "What differences in the social and economic performance of farm families are incident to

^aThis is the third in a series of county monographs developed by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. For an account of the first two, see [2, 19] in the Current Bulletin Reviews section of *Rural Sociology*, Vol. 13, No. 4, December, 1948.

their tenure status?," "What are the chief factors conditioning the farm tenure status of a given farm family?" and "What are the underlying factors which influence tenure status and how are they related to individual farm families?" Farming conditions in the five southwestern states participating in the project varied so widely that regional generalizations were impossible. As the study progressed, it became increasingly apparent that the relation between performance and tenure status was exceedingly tenuous. Nevertheless, the researchers were able to give tentative answers to the three questions and this bulletin is a highly condensed summary of their analysis.

Rural Health

[14] *Cooperation for Rural Health* reviews some of the health activities carried on by farmers' cooperatives from 1945 through 1947. The report (1) summarizes certain general measures co-ops have taken to improve health services for farm people, (2) outlines selected examples of three systems of prepayment and (3) makes some suggestions for interested groups in rural areas where little has been done. Information was obtained by correspondence and by personal visits to some of the organizations studied.

The author points out that the advantages of a health cooperative are derived not only in time of sickness but in the continuous protection of family and community health. To many people investment in health is a new idea which needs to be cultivated. Cooperation between all groups (rural, urban, doctors, laymen) is necessary in order to solve the health problems of rural areas. A local group should collect the facts and then plan accordingly for health improvement. A detailed outline for health study and planning as well as a selected list of references is included in the appendix.

[26] *The Use of Health Services* in Gettysburg and Shippensburg, located in south-central Pennsylvania, was studied in 1946. Information was gathered by personal interviews with 976 families (3,667 persons)

living in the community centers and surrounding rural areas. It was found that although illness occurred at about the same rate in the two communities and in the rural and urban parts, it was less apt to be treated by a physician if it occurred in rural areas. Dental services were used less by rural people but varied with education and income among rural and urban households alike. Insurance for illness, accident, hospitalization, and death was employed much more by urban families than rural. The widespread use of unprescribed drugs and home remedies as well as failure to remedy defects found in health examinations of school children indicate the need for health education. The author recommends the formation of local Health Councils to study the medical needs of the communities and ways of meeting them.

[12] Nearly one-half of the 1,219 persons among a sample of 306 farm families located in three Michigan counties reported one or more symptoms which, according to medical standards, call for medical attention. And nearly a third of the persons needing medical care had neglected the symptom entirely or had used home remedies. Heretofore most studies of rural health have been concerned with the availability of medical services and measures of medical needs have been confined to the conclusions one can draw from mortality records and morbidity figures. The use of symptoms, described in the language of laymen, marks a departure from previous health surveys. Its reliability was demonstrated when clinical tests of a sub-sample showed agreement in eight out of ten cases. The bulletin contains an examination of the available health services, and the family's appraisal of these services. Expenditures for medical care are tabulated and the usual fees are listed. The attitudes of Michigan farm families toward prepayment plans for hospitalization and doctor's fees are also recorded. Hospitalization insurance is highly regarded; 70 percent of the families consider them a good idea. Farmers haven't made up their minds about

prepayment plans for doctor's fees; 35 percent consider them a good idea, 14 percent regard them unfavorably, and 51 percent are still uncertain.

[27] *Medical Care in Greene County, North Carolina*, was studied in 1945 in order to determine "(1) the type and extent of medical personnel and facilities available to the people; (2) the extent to which the people use these facilities; and (3) the extent to which Greene County people are going without the medical attention they need." Four neighborhoods were selected to represent the county. Information was obtained through interviews with every family in each area—266 families including 1,394 individuals both white and Negro. The symptoms approach (see [12]) was used to determine medical care needs. About half the people in the county had unmet medical care needs because of the lack of adequate personnel and facilities, ignorance about the care needed, or inability to pay for treatment. About nine out of ten of those interviewed favored the principle of securing medical care according to need and paying in proportion to ability.

Rural Church

[15] *Religious Organization in Kentucky* is a study of church membership based on published sources and field studies. In 1946, Kentucky had approximately 7,600 churches, 3,500 full-time ministers and contributions exceeding twenty million dollars. The church is numerically the most important voluntary organization in the state, nearly one-half of the population being church members. There are significant regional differences in church membership; organized religion has its greatest strength in the subregions with stable populations, high economic and educational levels, and many other formal

organizations. An analysis of a sample population indicates that church members have higher economic and educational status than non-members and are much more likely to participate in other community organizations than non-members.

Miscellaneous

[32] The agricultural broadcast has become an important educational medium of the Agricultural Extension Service in Pennsylvania where 50 radio stations carry extension programs. A survey of the rural radio audience, its size, composition, and listening habits, was conducted in three Pennsylvania counties. A fourth of the farmers and over a third of the homemakers are regular listeners to extension broadcasts. Full-time farmers are the principal listeners although there are substantial numbers of part-time farmers and non-farmers, particularly non-farm women, in the audience. Over half of the regular listeners take some action in response to the broadcasts. The bulletin contains several suggestions, based on the survey, regarding the time of the broadcast, the continuity of the audience, and the relation of radio to other extension methods.

[16] The experiences and activities of older youth clubs all over the country are described in *Youth Action Programs*. The material is directed toward extension workers and other older youth leaders and to rural young people themselves. Many specific suggestions are offered for each of the many kinds of programs that challenge young men and women today. The bulletin is more than a summary; it is a handbook of rural youth activities. A supplementary section provides the names, addresses, aims and programs of the leading national rural youth agencies.

BOOK REVIEWS

*Edited by Otis Durant Duncan **

The Bright-Tobacco Industry. By Nannie May Tilley. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1948. Pp. xiv + 754. \$8.00.

Miss Tilley has produced this book at a time when the venture should be of interest and profit to many people and agencies. It is a description of the Bright-Tobacco industry from numerous angles. There are three Parts: (1) Cultivation, (2) Marketing, and (3) Manufacturing. Several appendices provide additional information.

The book begins with the beginning of the bright-leaf tobacco industry and brings it down to the present in terms of each of the three above mentioned sections.

Under cultivation is included all steps, from the preparation of the seed bed, to the harvesting of the crop. Included also are the kind of farms suited to tobacco; special labor problems; the delicate problems in curing, costs, varieties, etc. Also the general areas in which bright-leaf tobacco is grown, and the scientific developments applied to the various needs and peculiarities associated with the crop.

In the field of marketing the unique auction sales method is interestingly described, as well as the entire channeling of the crop from the farm to the consumer. Of peculiar interest to sociologists is the description given of efforts in the organization of farmers growing this highly specialized crop.

Under the topic of manufacturing is found an excellent analysis and description of the various factors involved, including the rise of manufacturing methods; first on a small scale, and then on a large scale.

One thing which makes the book interesting to the reader is the introduction of anecdotes and unusual experiences and occurrences associated with the rise of this industry. This feature is illustrated by the

many names given to the early tobacco brands.

In a broad way this book is more than a description of a particular crop; it is the story of cooperate development, of socio-cultural change; and of the many problems confronting this area from the end of the Civil War to the present time—a region that has resisted industrial encroachment and that has stubbornly maintained the psychology and culture of people whose interests are rooted deeply in the soil.

To persons interested in the entire economy and culture of the Southeast this book is of particular value. Another book similarly written and dealing with the cotton industry in the southern area would make an excellent history of the life and labor of the people of this section. The job has been well done for the bright-tobacco crop in the present book.

B. O. WILLIAMS.

The University of Georgia.

American Opinion on World Affairs. By Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. and Sylvia Eberhart. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1948. Pp. xxi + 152. \$2.50.

This little book, prepared by two social psychologists primarily for the "intelligent citizen," is an interpretative report on American public opinion regarding the atomic bomb and world affairs. It contains in addition to the general report (60 pages) three representative intensive interviews (30 pages) and numerous tables from which the reader may draw his own conclusions.

The study is based largely on data previously published (April, 1947) by Cornell University in the 310-page lithoprinted volume, *Public Reaction to the Atomic Bomb and World Affairs*. It reports two surveys of attitudes and information both involving

* Oklahoma A. and M. College.

interviews with representative samples of adults in the U. S. during the months just before and just after the Bikini bomb tests in July, 1946.

Richard S. Crutchfield of Swarthmore prepared the report on the extensive or polling type of data which were obtained by Benson and Benson, Inc., of Princeton, New Jersey. About 3,000 "before" and 3,000 "after" informants selected by quota-control methods gave pre-categorized responses for this part of the study. Angus Campbell, Sylvia Eberhart, and Patricia Woodward similarly analyzed the intensive interview data obtained by the University of Michigan Survey Research Center. In the later case nearly 600 informants selected by area sampling methods were interviewed before, and a comparable groups were interviewed after, the Bikini tests. Free response questions and "probes" ("Why do you feel that way?") were emphasized in the intensive study.

Cottrell, as chairman of a Social Science Research Council sub-committee, "was asked to assume general administrative direction of the project" which had been suggested by the S.S.R.S. Committee on Social Aspects of Atomic Energy, and made possible by grants to Cornell University of almost \$50,000. This elaborate organization of personnel backed by substantial funds, increasingly characteristic of social science research in the U.S.A., seems hardly excessive in view of the significance of the problem investigated. The serious student of public opinion will want to own not only the work being reviewed but the volume of findings referred to above.

If the human race is doomed to self-annihilation through a failure to understand or to develop adequate social controls for its burgeoning modern technology of destruction, this work will show vividly, in both interview and tabular form, a sample of the mind of our times which could permit such a development to occur without serious resistance.

Almost all American adults know something of the atomic bomb and its destruc-

tiveness, but few "realize the implications of its existence for the world community." (p. 20) The Bikini tests show little if any significant impact on public opinion as reflected in comparisons of the "before" and "after" survey results. Most respondents are "intellectually aware that the bomb is a possible threat, but the threat is not sharply felt." (p. 27) Furthermore, most people apparently feel "there is nothing they can do to help prevent war." (p. 29)

It is the feeblest kind of understatement to agree with the authors that, in view of the findings, a program of education "on our economic and political interdependence with the rest of the world is sorely needed." (p. 55)

EDGAR A. SCHULER.

Michigan State College.

Community Organization for Recreation. By Gerald B. Fitzgerald. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1948. Pp. 352. \$4.00.

With the publication of this volume, Professor Fitzgerald has presented a long sought contribution to the literature on recreation. This is the first major work to consider recreation as an aspect of community living and an important phase of community organization. There is presented a fairly sound philosophy of recreation with the zeal of the professional tempered with an understanding of the broad social implications in its organization. This philosophy includes emphasis upon the continuing process in organization for recreation, as well as the end product of play. By emphasizing the inability of any one agency to single-handedly provide full recreational opportunity, Professor Fitzgerald has pointed up the necessity for community-wide coordination and cooperation. This volume includes an interesting and accurate account of the development of the recreation movement in America and considers the pattern of recreation planning on national, state, and local levels.

Designed primarily as a text (of which it is probably the best presently available), it will be of equal value and interest to

sociologists concerned with all phases of the whole community and to professional or lay worker alike seeking to build a sound foundation for recreation in their local community. The volume includes a rather exhaustive bibliography of material on every phase of recreation in the community and is to be recommended to anyone interested in the organization of the community for recreation.

COOLIE VERNER.

University of Virginia.

Community Recreation. By Harold D. Meyer and Charles K. Brightbill. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1948. Pp. xiii + 703. \$5.00.

Written by a sociologist and a recreation specialist, neither of whom, apparently, has much knowledge of rural life, this book nevertheless is probably as complete a treatment of the philosophy and organization of recreation, especially in the larger community, as is available. The authors look upon recreation as a major force in social well-being along with education, health, religion, and work, and they do pretty well in proving the point. Yet they show, again quite conclusively, that recreation is not being given the attention it deserves by social scientists and civic leaders.

The authors base their argument for the need of organized recreation in the community on its positive importance in providing individual and group happiness, satisfaction, and well-being. The chief emphasis in the book, therefore, is that "a program of recreation should be provided in every community, rural and urban, for all people, children, youth, and adults." They hold that the program should be supported by government, local, state, and federal, as are education and other public services. Even now "one dollar of every twenty the average American spends goes for recreation," much of which is for commercial recreation.

The book is divided into two parts, 12 sections, and 39 fairly short chapters. The first part deals with the foundations of

organized recreation and the second with organization and administration of recreation. Though several references are made to recreation in rural life in various parts of the book, only one chapter of four in one section deals specifically with rural life. The major recommendation is to set up a superintendent of recreation for each county, with a county-wide advisory committee and staff, operating under county governmental auspices. The authors recognize that the most conspicuous rural problem is the lack of leadership and that there are many potential leaders awaiting someone to stimulate and direct their efforts and assume administrative responsibility.

However, since the city "remains the most important social and economic entity in contemporary civilization," the authors devote most of the book to philosophy and details of organization and programming recreation in the larger centers, practically all of the illustrations, and good ones, too, being drawn from work being carried on in urban communities. They look upon the community as the focal point of organization and assert that no matter what the size of the community there is need for organization for recreation in it.

The emphasis in leadership in the book is upon the need for greater professionalization and for the use of volunteer leaders to supplement the work of and to aid the professional worker—a typical urban approach—rather than to train volunteer leaders to build their own program and gain skills sufficient to carry on with their own group—an essential approach for rural areas.

Rural sociologists will find in this book excellent source and reference materials; it does not and probably was not intended to serve as a guide to recreational development in rural areas. There is great need yet for material that will help develop good recreational programs in the small town-country community. Agricultural Extension Service personnel are doing a good job with interest groups and leaders but we do not have adequate guidance and experience in the total rural community approach to recrea-

tion, any more than we have for other rural life programs with which agricultural extension services deal.

DAVID E. LINDSTROM.

University of Illinois.

Economic Factors of Delinquency. By Cletus Dirksen. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. 94. \$2.00.

There is little, if anything, added to our knowledge of delinquency by the publication of this volume. The author is concerned mainly with interpreting existing theories regarding the relationship of the two variables—economics and delinquency—within the framework of Catholic theology and philosophy. He holds that the interpretation which posits economic deprivation and the ethic of competition as causal factors in delinquency is too materialistic and neglects other important factors; to wit, the lack of moral and religious integrity of the individual.

If, as the author claims, some students are guilty of over-emphasizing the economic factor in delinquency, then he has erred in the opposite direction by overstressing the influence of religion as a preventive factor. His analysis, which makes use of such ideas as "original sin" and "the social bond implanted in individuals by their Creator", will not be accepted by positivists. It is enough to suggest that this volume does not qualify as social science and does not warrant the serious attention of criminologists. Its chief value lies in its potential use as a document by those students of the sociology of knowledge who are interested in the sociology of Catholic sociology.

G. FRANKLIN EDWARDS.

Howard University.

Family, Marriage and Parenthood. Edited by Howard Becker and Reuben Hill. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1948. Pp. x + 829. \$5.00.

Family, Marriage and Parenthood is one of the best products of experiments in providing material for classes in the subjects covered. It is in the main a new book rather

than a revision of the 1942 edition. Chapters 10, 13, 15, 20 and 21 have few revisions. Some of the authors in the earlier volume do not appear in the present edition and some new ones have been added. The volume contains six parts: Contexts of Family Life; Preparation for Marriage; Marriage Interaction; Problems of Parenthood and Family Administration; Family Crisis and Ways of Meeting Them; Prospects for the Future. Each chapter has an extensive bibliography and a list of topics for discussion or reports.

The authors have tried to steer between the traditional type of course and the more advanced point of view. They rest their case on tested knowledge, but since the volume has a "double barreled" purpose they sometimes differ on what comprises it. In some places age is the criterion of tested knowledge. For example, the discussion of premarital experience sets forth no principle by which an individual may judge the validity of the experience other than the long cherished principle that sex experience is valid only within marriage. The principle may be valid, but the authors provide no tested knowledge upon which to substantiate it other than its sacredness and perhaps the testimonial of best by "taste test". The principle of the "sacred" may be open to question by the "secularist".

The senior author places great stress upon "sacred" and "secular" as the frame of reference for considering Family, Marriage and Parenthood. The volume is an eloquent testimony to the sacred. Repeatedly allegiance to the sacred as well as to custom and tradition, is manifested. This is more a reflection of the attitude of the author(s) than of their competence or function as scholars. An example may be found in the chapter Taking Physical Factors into Account which states that "the attainment of perfect technique of intercourse is so vital to complete marital happiness that it should constitute a goal in itself." If this be true, why not indicate some of the techniques for the benefit of potential married couples as well as married couples?

Was it assumed that the term "technique" would automatically in some magical fashion bring the necessary skill? One has the suspicion that the "sacred" impinged so strongly that there was reluctance to venture. A discussion of the role of rhythm, tempo, variation, position, tension, duration, attitudes and numerous other factors in the situation would prove profitable to many readers. Some of us are ignorant of the necessary techniques and are searching for knowledge so as to assure a reasonable degree of happiness. We want to be happy, and not unhappy.

In spite of the assumption that love is the only basis for marriage, the index contains only seven references to it, none of which can be regarded as the most illuminating discussion of the phenomena of love. For example, attention might have been called to *Art as Experience* by Dewey which may have more relevance to a conception of love than anything cited. Surely, the classic chapter on Love by Santayana in *Reason in Society* ought to be familiar to students, yet there is no mention of it. In spite of his introspectionism Kierkegaard has some profound insights into the nature of love in his *Works of Love*. Even the *Letters of Abelard and Heloise*, perhaps the most famous lovers in the world, are left unmentioned. Might it not be advisable to bring students in touch with some of these outstanding contributions to a conception of love? They are supposed to know something about love in order to have some standard of measurement for the phenomena prior to and after its occurrence.

One other observation may be made. The blanket term "marital relations," or its equivalent, was frequently used. As such, it is perfectly legitimate, but may there not be some necessity to break it down for purpose of "job" analysis? For example, the impression is left that the term sexual intercourse is all that needs to be used in order to describe these phenomena. Little recognition is given to sexual intercourse as an idea, or its qualitative or quantitative aspects, in spite of the fact that happy

couples are conspicuously few. In the main, the problem is approached as if individuals possessed instinctively the necessary "know-how." This is contrary to fact, if the relationship of male and female is to be taken as action and reaction of personalities in which there is involved the acquisition of skill in communication as well as manipulation and organization of material.

Even with its limitations, this is a good text and it will serve a useful purpose on many campuses. The several authors come from the most competent in the field and few could do better, but we might as well face the fact that the subject is now in the stage of physics and chemistry of two hundred years ago. The problems need to be handled in terms of process categories instead of Aristotelian terminology.

FRANK W. HOFFER.

University of Virginia.

The Home Place. Wright Morris. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948, Pp. 176. \$3.50.

This book is unique. The author calls it "a pioneer enterprise in the field of publishing." The uniqueness lies in the attempted synthesis of the arts of writing and photography to tell a simple story. This story is that of the boy who after 28 years in New York returns to the home place with his city wife and his two children, who do not know what "crockay" is, and who are so innocent of rural ways that they get themselves and their rescuers embarrassingly involved in fly paper in a store on Main Street.

Half the pages are given over to full-page photographs which give the setting, illustrate the story, or more often suggest subtle nuances of meaning. The old-fashioned barber's mug, the prized but awful pictures of bygone generations hung on dingy walls, the shank of rope in the barn, the model T, are all there. So in the text is the quiet, salty humor of the farmer, the brittle wit of the two urban intellectuals, the mixture of condescension and family feeling with which the unrepentant prodi-

gal is received, and the garrulous recollections of great-grandmother, the last as tiresome in the book as in life. Indeed, save for the two children and "grandpa" most of the characters are on the unpleasant side. The central unselfish act is done under the lash of duty.

It's a homespun yarn. Its effectiveness, especially of the technically excellent photographs, will depend on the past rural experience of the reader and perhaps on the depth of his nostalgic regard for his own home place.

EDMUND DE S. BRUNNER,

Columbia University.

Interracial Programs of Student YWCA's.

By Yolanda B. Wilkerson. New York: The Woman's Press, 1948. Pp. v + 159. \$2.00.

This little volume is an excellent effort to provide an evaluation of the interracial programs of campus YWCA's and suggestions for redirecting those programs along lines which should enhance their effectiveness. The minority groups considered are Jews, Negroes, and Americans of Japanese descent. The study is confined to problems of discrimination and prejudice faced by those groups on college campuses and in neighboring communities.

The data of the investigation include responses of 222 student Associations (some YWCA and some Student Christian) to a seven page questionnaire; responses of 93 former Association members to an inquiry form regarding their campus and post graduate interracial experiences and interests; and observations and records of the Secretary of Interracial Education. Both sets of questionnaires show a relatively wide geographical distribution.

Some of the more significant of the author's findings are as follows:

1. Discriminations against minority group college students are more marked in close social and personal relationships than in other areas of contact.

2. Discriminations against Negro students are sharper and more frequent than

against the other two minority groups included in the study.

3. Campus discriminations against minority students are waning, especially in regard to Japanese-Americans.

4. Changing sentiments and organized protests of students appear to be the chief factors producing progressive change in interracial relations on college campuses and neighboring communities.

In conclusion, this is an authoritative and respectable study, the importance of which is not lessened by its brevity.

THELMA A. PERRY,

Langston University.

Introductory Sociology. By Robert L. Sutherland and Julian L. Woodward. (Third Edition) Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1948. Pp. xiv + 882. \$5.00.

The careful comparison of the third and 1940 editions of this useful and popular introductory textbook will prove disappointing to those who expect to find in the third edition any really substantial changes or additions. In fact, such comparison may tend to leave the impression that there exists little or no justification for the third edition since the modifications, deletions and additions made have done little to enhance the utility of the book. It is true that some readers would find annoyance in encountering names, events and census data that date before World War II, some may, however, question the necessity of predicating a new edition of a book upon such annoyances. That the authors may not be unmindful of questions that may arise regarding the justification of this new edition is suggested by the following statement: "... we have tried to bring illustrations and bibliographies up to date. We have also made a number of changes in the subject matter, designed to modernize those portions of the text where developments of the past eight years have modified previously existing viewpoints. It has not been possible, however, to give the text as complete a working over as we would have liked, but we are consoled in part by the feeling that this is not

a good time to give the conceptual structure of any basic text in sociology a thorough revision." (page vii) This is a feeling which is based on the fact that sociologists have had little time to devote energy and thought to the modification of theory in this period.

To list all of the changes which have been made in the new edition would not be of value. (They vary from the substitution of Van Johnson for Clarke Gable to the inclusion of materials on social security and public opinion polls.) It does seem, however, appropriate to indicate in a general way some of the things that the reader will find new in the third edition.

Part I has been only slightly modified. Some materials from MacIver's *Social Cause* (1942) are added to the first chapter. New data are included in Chapter IV, and bibliographical revisions are made for each chapter.

The chapters of Part II appear to have received more attention. Some of Thurstone's recent findings are introduced in Chapter VII. In Chapter IX Thomas' four wishes are cast aside for Folsom's list of common motives. The Murphys' diagram of the Authority-Competition Process is no longer presented. The section on the effect of shock on personality as well as the section on the sociological point of view on the normal personality found in Chapter X are re-written. In this same chapter will be found the addition of a paragraph to the section on social reorganization as a form of therapy. Again all bibliographies are revised.

The changes made in Part III are few and of no great significance. Those that are made are generally in keeping with the events that have transpired during and after World War II. Thus the names of Hitler and Mussolini are deleted and those of Talmadge and Bilbo substituted in the section dealing with leadership and political crowds. The excesses of the Russian revolution are replaced by the unregulated atrocities perpetrated by the Japanese armed forces. A paragraph is written to take note of Japan's post-war status. The Faris-Dollard frustra-

tion-aggression controversy is brought up to 1941 in Chapter XIII.

The 1940 census data, the post-war housing shortage, wartime economic controls, expansion in government agencies and bureaus and recent developments in social legislation make necessary some modifications in the materials of chapters XV, XVI and XVII of Part IV. New data on school enrollments and expenditures as well as the inclusion of a brief discussion of newer developments in the objectives of education are found in Chapter XVIII. The topic of organized religion as an agency of social control found in Chapter XIX is modified. In this same chapter will be found that a paragraph on the "counselling ministry" and several paragraphs on Alcoholics Anonymous have been added. Some new materials have been included in the chapter on social welfare and health organizations. The discussion devoted to the family has been modified to include more recent data on family size, birth rates and divorce. In addition, some changes are made in sections concerned with the cultural definition of marital roles and the future of the family.

World War II is responsible, in general, for the comparatively few changes that occur in Part V of the book.

The opening chapter (XXVI) of Part VI has remained practically untouched. A section on acculturation is added and other slight modifications are made in Chapter XXVII. The discussion devoted to censorship found in Chapter XXIX is somewhat expanded in keeping with World War II events and a new section of one and one-half pages on controls over communication channels has been added. In Chapter XXX are found additional materials on public forums as well as modifications and additions to the sections on social decision through the use of coercion and social control in a complex society. In this chapter too will be found a discussion of public opinion polls. Bibliographies of all chapters in Part VI as well as those of Parts III, IV and V are revised.

The entire book has been re-set and several new half-tone illustrations have replaced those in the 1940 edition.

Despite the fact that the reader well acquainted with the 1940 edition may find the 1948 edition hardly justified in view of the insignificant character of the great bulk of the changes made, the book, it is believed, continues to be extremely well suited to a beginning course in sociology. It should continue to occupy its position in the front ranks of introductory sociology textbooks.

ELIO D. MONACHESI.

University of Minnesota.

Malabar Farm. By Louis Bromfield. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947, 8. Pp. viii + 405. \$3.75.

Malabar Farm is largely a day-by-day account of the accomplishments in achievement, observation, and experiment on the author's farm consisting of "approximately 900 acres of glaciated Ohio hill land, all of it at a low level of production only seven years ago and much of it abandoned farm land, of a level of production so low that it could not find a tenant or even bring a couple of dollars a year rent from neighbors."

The story tells in some detail how several properties, ruined and made worthless by generations of tenant "whorish" farming, have been transformed into one of the outstanding grass land farms in the region by the application of scientific practices.

In his description of the development and application of his scientific techniques the author takes time off frequently to condemn the practices of the majority of farmers who have "corned" their land into death and decay. He criticises the subsidy program of the Federal government as a waste of public money and a fostering of an unproductive, inefficient agriculture.

The author started a general farming enterprise but experience from each year's operation has forced him to adopt a specialized, highly mechanized grass land enterprise. Only specialized, efficient farming

can draw and hold young folk, he says. This is not an argument against the family sized farm, but against the family general farm which is characterized by its drudgery, inefficiency, and low income.

Interspersed throughout this rambling account of the rejuvenation of Malabar Farm are shorter or longer essays on such subjects as the Malthusian theory, the philosophy of Liberty Hyde Bailey, the migration of peoples and the resultant social and racial issues, and the numerous other topics provoked by the author's daily living and concern with national and international issues. Much space is devoted to describing the routine of family living, recreation, wildlife conservation, education, neighborhood activities, and town-country relations to demonstrate that, "the farm is a good place to be and agriculture is a good field in which not only to find security but satisfaction in living."

GEORGE W. HILL.

University of Wisconsin.

The More Perfect Union. By R. M. MacIver. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xii + 311. \$4.00.

The urgent need of orienting research activities in a manner which will produce socially useful knowledge, of value in the formulation of public policies and in the interest of social control, is the chief concern of the volume reviewed here. It is the opinion of the author that "action" oriented research must replace the type of research which stresses "strict objectivity" if social scientists are to make a fundamental contribution to the solution of social problems. To engage in research without consideration of the ends to which the knowledge derived therefrom may be put is to limit the contribution which the social scientist may make and, in effect, negates the effort on his part to win respect as a man of knowledge.

Professor MacIver demonstrates through an analysis of intergroup relations how the research approach he suggests operates. Though a considerable amount of research

has been conducted in this area of investigation, it is the author's opinion that we do not yet possess the type of knowledge to provide the basis of group consensus. Accordingly, he lists some of the problems which must be investigated if such knowledge is to be obtained.

This volume has the solid merit of making an analysis of the problem discussed on a sociological level. In the reviewer's judgment, the analytic approach to problems is too often eclectic in nature. In this analysis, however, MacIver is always concerned with group actions, group patterns, and social processes. It is the social situation and not individual attitudes derived therefrom upon which he focuses. The program he suggests is consistent with a sound theory of social movements.

Five short appendixes expand, document and further clarify the major points made by the author. Two of these appendixes are contributed by collaborating scholars—Drs. Robert Bierstedt and L. Joseph Stone.

The volume raises a number of issues, e.g., the problem of values in social science research and the nature of and problems connected with social experiments. It should be read by social scientists for the methodological question it raises; the analysis it furnishes of intergroup relations will be of interest to scientist, administrators and laymen.

G. FRANKLIN EDWARDS.

Howard University.

The Nuba: An Anthropological Study of the Hill Tribes in Kordofan. By S. F. Nadel. London: Oxford University Press, 1947. Pp. xiv + 527 and map. \$11.00.

This is a study of various primitive groups of African hill-billies who reside in the Nuba mountains directly south of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and across the Nile due west from Abyssinia. The study was brought about by the needs of the British colonial civil servant in Kordofan who administer the overhead policies of the region. Its author was at that time in the London School of Economics and Political

Science having taken degrees earlier at Vienna and also London. Since publication of this work he has risen to distinction as a colonial administrator and lecturer in other English universities.

The book deserves an A1A rating as an anthropological study of high merit. It does not, like many other studies, attempt to establish any sweeping theories of nature, nurture or culture but rather describes the people as they are and seeks to find what are their problems now that colonially enforced peace brings them into non-warlike contact with each other, with Arabic Islamism and with the Western world (i.e. British colonial policies).

While its excellent analysis, avoidance of esoteric anthropologisms and administrative contributions call for praise, it may also be criticized. Many of the basic practices of these people are forms of behavior categorized in Western society by archaic law terms such as transaction, composition, amend, *abandon-noxal* for persons, active and passive solidarity based upon giving and receiving *wergild* and so on. It is to be hoped in time that these primitive legal and other economic practices will be labeled by our similar counterparts so that thinking concerning their change and evolution can have the historical experience of our own society for comparative analysis.

The agricultural practices are discussed in detail. The work is a must for all our departmental and institutional libraries and for use in our seminars on rural life in other regions.

CARLE C. ZIMMERMAN.

Harvard University.

Physics and Politics. By Walter Bagehot (Introduction by Jacques Barzun). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1948. Pp. xxvi + 230 + vii. \$2.75.

Barzun says that the title *Physics and Politics* achieves a new importance in the atomic age; publishers would like to borrow it and forget the man who coined it seventy-five years ago, and who not long ago was identified in print as a banker,

ship owner and editor. Recent events have given the world an object lesson in the kind of power politics with which Bagehot deals. "The use of conflict", the emphasis on military art, tooth and claw tactics, and on the survival of the best, often offensive to the philosophical idealist, do not seem as far fetched after two world wars in one generation as they once did. Bagehot's facile invention of slick phrases whenever his purposes required leaves his critics gasping and wondering if what he said was what he meant, or if he meant what he said and something different at the same time. In bewildered enlightenment, Barzun deduces that Bagehot has an inkling of democracy, which is, doubtless, a source of great consolation.

Well, sociologists have certainly acquired a familiarity with Bagehot's name. They know about "the cake of custom," if not about "the yoke of custom." They know that Bagehot antedated Tarde in the use of the concept of imitation, although he did not build a system and stake his reputation on it as did Tarde. They know, too, that Bagehot's "physics" refers to natural and his "politics" to social phenomena. Yet, rural sociologists would do well to gain an intimate knowledge of *Physics and Politics* rather than remaining content to know about it.

One who has tried unsuccessfully for a decade to purchase a suitable copy of this little book can be only grateful that it has been republished in an attractive reasonably priced edition.

OTIS DURANT DUNCAN.

Oklahoma Agricultural and
Mechanical College.

Population Analysis. By T. Lynn Smith.
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.,
1948. Pp. xii + 421. \$4.50.

Population Analysis has not before been used as the title of a book and therefore many persons in the field of population and related disciplines will eagerly scan the contents of this text to see which analytical methods are featured and to discover the nature of the research problems to which

the methods are applied. Dr. Smith's concept of population analysis differs considerably from that of the reviewer. A text with this title might be expected to cover fairly comprehensively the methods which research workers in the field currently utilize in analyzing demographic data and their interrelationships, but this is not Dr. Smith's conception of the subject.

The book might be described as a presentation and textual discussion of descriptive population statistics relating mainly to the United States, with the separate subjects treated discretely, accompanied by a plethora of graphic material and a minimum of analysis and interpretation of interrelationships. In the main, it appears to have been written about a decade ago, and although 1940 Census data were inserted in many places, some of the statistical material has not been brought up to date as much as the last Census would have permitted. Population data from the Census Bureau's current population sample surveys covering the dramatic changes that have occurred since 1940 have been wholly ignored. Although the author states that "no effort has been spared to assemble comparable information from other portions of the world," the tabular material presented for foreign countries, except that for Brazil, comes altogether from several issues of the *Statistical Yearbook* of the League of Nations and of *Vital Statistics—Special Reports*.

In selection of topics and allocation of space and attention, the author's long interest in the rural-nonfarm population, the sex ratio, women's misstatement of age, and nativity is evident. In contrast, very slight attention is given to labor force, occupational and industrial composition of the population, and birth and death statistics. There is no mention of marriage and divorce registration statistics. Nor is there any attempt to relate the historical developments of urbanization and migration in the United States to the process of industrialization of the nation's economy.

The book is presented as a text for advanced undergraduate college or university students. The author has avoided the title "Population Problems," as he very creditably wishes to avoid the pathological emphasis. Nevertheless, a course based on this text would be much more similar to those now offered which bear the title of "Population Problems" or simply "Population" than to a course primarily aimed toward teaching students how to *analyze* population data, using the latest available sources of data, concepts, and techniques.

But a reviewer should not quarrel with an author over the book he did not write, even though a valid question might be raised as to the applicability of the title. In the book that was written a number of specific points might be singled out for adverse comment, even though the greater part of the content consists of sound descriptive statistics of the population of the United States.

One correction needs to be noted in the terminology used in the brief treatment of "employment status" (pp. 165-6). As used by the Census Bureau in 1940 Census volumes and current population reports, this term refers to the classification of persons as in or out of the labor force, and if in, as to whether employed or unemployed, with certain categories of the unemployed. Dr. Smith has applied it to what the Census designates as "class of worker,"—wage or salary workers, employers and own-account workers, and unpaid family workers—and to "new workers," one category of the unemployed. One important function of teachers or textbook writers is to teach the students the correct use of terms as they appear in the available statistics.

The definition and treatment of the net reproduction rate (pp. 198-9) are incorrect and inadequate, respectively. The "fertility ratio" is praised because it "does not depend on births" (p. 198). The decrease in infant mortality between 1915 and 1944 is hailed as "a magnificent accomplishment" (p. 265) and elsewhere appraised as "to a significant degree merely a reflection of improved birth registration statistics" (p. 207). Per-

haps more serious in a text for undergraduates is the promulgation with approval of ideas expressed long ago and no longer considered valid by most students, such as the 1895 pronouncement of Richmond Mayo-Smith, in the chapter dealing with immigration, that "these founders of the state (the colonists) and their descendants are the proprietors of the nations, possessing the right and even the obligation of guarding American institutions against any alien influences of a subversive nature." (p. 307)

It is to be hoped that Dr. Smith's pioneering effort in writing a college text on population analysis will stimulate additional college courses on the subject and further attempts by population analysts to make available for classroom use exposition of the methods they use in the process of population analysis.

MARGARET JARMAN HAGOOD.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

Resolving Social Conflicts. By Kurt Lewin. New York: Harper and Bros., 1948. Pp. xviii + 230. \$3.50.

The truly important contribution made by this posthumous collection of Lewin's random essays is that it systematizes, and even diagrams, much of the unorganized materials about human association current among psychologists and sociologists. The originality of the author consists largely in this graphic synthesis. He gives more attention to the mechanics of interrelations than to the differential factors in the situations which produce differences and conflicts in personalities. Perhaps this comparative emphasis was unavoidable to one not native to our culture. It is less marked in the third part of the book in which he discusses conflict in the Jewish personality.

Although he divides his book into three parts: problems of changing culture, conflicts of face-to-face groups, and intergroup conflicts (Jews vs. nonJews), his point of view is much more than of individual than of collective psychology. The weakness of his sociological viewpoint appears in his secondary emphasis upon, but not neglect

of, the environmental factors. He belongs to that faction of individual psychology which seems to think it has disposed of the fact of environmental conditioners when it substitutes the term situation, and fails to emphasize the conditioning process in personality building because it rejects conflict between objectivated culture and personality as significant. However, in his actual treatment he is not able to ignore this conflict, especially in his analysis of delinquency, the family, and the Jewish minority group. The first two subjects he discusses ably and objectively. The third is not handled without participant emotion. It is no service to the Jews to tell them that their good or bad behavior has little or no relation to how they are treated (p. 162). Nor is it true, as he assumes (p. 170), that non-Jews are more responsible than Jews for intolerance between the two groups. G. W. Allport contributes an enthusiastic introduction which summarizes the argument.

L. L. BERNARD.

Pennsylvania State College.

Rural Mexico. By Nathan L. Whetten, University of Connecticut: The University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. xxv + 671. \$10.00.

If it is well to know other peoples, their resources, and their institutions as well as we know our own, Dr. Whetten has made an epochal contribution to our knowledge of rural Mexico and, doubtless, also to our destiny in world affairs. In an easy style, the author has depicted the lives of the rural Mexicans in enough detail so that the reader can envision them in all their diversity of races and tongues as they live and breathe and have their being.

The book is divided into five parts. Part I, with three chapters, is devoted to the geographical environment and its effect on the growth and distribution of the population, and on the composition of the population. Accustomed as we are to thinking of ourselves as constituting one people of a practically common culture, we might be in-

clined to look upon the people of Mexico in similar fashion. As a matter of fact, the Mexican people comprise many groups speaking many tongues besides Spanish. Because Mexico is a very mountainous country and because its climate varies greatly in points of elevation, temperature, and rainfall, rural Mexico is geographically and culturally isolated from the general life of the nation. As the author indicates, this presents many difficulties in public administration and in such matters as education and rural progress generally.

Part II, with eight chapters, is devoted to the relation of the people to the land. The first two chapters deal with the landholding villages and the great haciendas, as they were prior to 1910. The landholding village, in fact, dates from prehistory while the haciendas have their beginnings with the conquest by Cortez. The Revolution which began in 1910 as a political movement became an agrarian movement in due course of time. Then follow chapters on the redistribution of the land from the great haciendas into small holdings, including the *ejido* system, which is described as partly communal but largely private farming so far as crop production is concerned. Then follow chapters on collective farming, with cases described in the Laguna region, and the place of the *ejido* in the rural economy.

Part III deals with standards and levels of living. Mexico has a gigantic task ahead to improve such matters as housing, diet, clothing, health, and education. Finally Indianism is discussed in relation to prevailing standards of living.

Part IV deals with social institutions such as marriage and the family, education and the rural schools, rural cultural missions in Mexico, and religion and the rural Church, in which the author discusses the restrictions placed upon the activities of the Church by the State. In this connection, he also presents an excellent analysis of the *sinarquista* movement and, lastly, he describes the Mexican government itself.

In Part V, Dr. Whetten summarizes in excellent fashion some of the major accom-

plishments of the Revolution and, in contrast, some of the problems that must be solved before the avowed ideals of the Revolution can be achieved. Many failures have been met with in the public administration of the purposes of the Revolution, and many mistakes have been made in their behalf, politically and otherwise. There is too much lacking that would be essential to success, but the author thinks that there is a net gain, for example, in being rid of the feudal land monopoly. But the biggest net gain he says, is the personal freedom enjoyed by the general population now in contrast with their status before 1910. In conclusion, Dr. Whetten's work was a great undertaking ably executed in a relatively short time—in about 3 years. This effort was strengthened by the fact that he was born in a colony of Americans in northern Mexico.

This book will be read with interest by sociologists and their students of human relations and also by citizens concerned with our international duties and responsibilities in Mexico and Latin America and, in fact, throughout the world.

BONNY YOUNGBLOOD.

Office of Experiment Stations
U. S. Department of Agriculture.

A Short History of Civilization (Second Edition). By Lynn Thorndike, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948. Pp. xiii + 751. \$5.00.

This deeply informed and attractively written book is a revision and extension of Thorndike's earlier history of civilization written shortly after the first World War. The early work was a pioneering endeavor into fields of data usually neglected by historians at that time: the fields of the ordinary social life of the people and their culture. Since that time this has become a very popular field of research and writing, and the new edition must be judged in terms of its relation to these more recent works. Two comments in this regard seem especially appropriate in a review designed for a sociological journal.

First, it seems to the reviewer, that other writers have developed conceptual schemes for the handling of historical data which are more fruitful, even for the historian, than the eclectic approach employed by Thorndike. Such names as Kroeber and Kahler come to mind. Kroeber has employed the conceptual apparatus of anthropology to good effect in his *Configuration of Culture*, and Kahler's *Man the Measure* shows what can be done with a unifying value theme. Compared with these works Thorndike's book appears encyclopaedic and diffuse. As a text in the history of civilization it is informed, well-written, and historically sound, but it offers little to the sociologist who is interested in historical data.

Second, one must still regret the absence of cooperation between sociologists and historians. The reading of many sociology works attests all too well to the lack of knowledge in the field of history with which many sociologists are afflicted. The reading of this book by Thorndike and of others by historians attests to the historians' lack of knowledge in the field of sociology. The causal categories, concepts of personality, and other explanatory concepts used by historians reflect the social theory of fifty or more years ago. There is little in this book that sociologists will find of use to them in their efforts to grapple with the complexities of social data. As a means of being introduced to history, of course, the book can be highly recommended.

WILLIAM L. KOLB.

Newcomb College
Tulane University.

Social Disorganization. By Robert E. Lee Faris. New York: The Ronald Press, 1948. Pp. viii + 481, \$4.50.

Professor Faris devotes the first three chapters of his book to a theoretical discussion of (1) "The Nature of Social Organization", (2) "The Nature of Social Disorganization" and (3) "The Nature of Personal Disorganization" and these chapters so resemble the first three of the Elliott and Merrill text that the present re-

viewer was duly flattered. The succeeding chapters bear little similarity, however, although naturally the subject matter in texts on the subject must cover a somewhat similar range of topics.

There is relatively little in the book which has not appeared in print elsewhere which may not be a serious criticism. But in my opinion at least, the book suffers (1) from its failure to present a more exhaustive survey of recent research and (2) from its relatively few statistics. Frequently, the latest trends are not given. Obviously, any book is confronted with a difficult problem in attempting to give the latest data because statistics sometimes change while the book is in press. Even so, recent data are of primary importance to students, especially in small colleges where federal documents are not so easily available.

Written from the point of view of the processes of social and personal disorganization, the book does not pretend to give a detailed analysis of social problems as such. Whether one can understand such processes without some understanding of the nature and extent of the problems is an important question, however, most college students certainly will not have a back-ground in social problems from a separate course before using this text, as Professor Faris seems to believe.

The book is not a lengthy one; in fact the various ramifications of social disorganization are disposed of in twelve chapters. One chapter each is devoted to: reactions to economic disorganization, the vices, suicide, mental abnormality, family disorganization, disorganization of religious institutions, political corruption, and disorganization through mass behavior and mob violence. Very properly, it seems to me, Professor Faris has included mass behavior disorders in his treatment although they are not usually so included. Crime is especially treated in two chapters, one of which is devoted to criminal theory. Two final chapters conclude the book, "Processes of Social Reorganization" and "Stability in the Post War World".

Any book covering a wide range of topics must be selective and Professor Faris has seen fit to ignore many aspects of social disorganization, or at best barely to mention them. The Russian Revolution, for example, is dismissed with one page; the New Deal receives three. War is given no especial treatment although, in the final chapter, the threat of war and the disruptive aspects of a possible war are discussed briefly. Professor Faris then passes to prediction of things to come and suggests that internal stability may be possible in the United States because among other things of declines in immigration and birth rates and increases in longevity. (Recently published census figures on the other hand seem to indicate that the birthrate is not declining at present and one cannot be certain that it will or will not decline very shortly.) Advances in technology, education and wealth he also regards as stabilizing forces in modern society.

Professor Faris recognizes that war and threatening factors outside our country may endanger our stability, but his failure to present this threat and that of the conflict between the various political ideologies in the perspective warrented by their importance to the modern scene seems a serious lack. Certainly the fundamental ideologies of great segments of human society were never in a greater conflict; nor can the dangers inherent in the international aspects of present day economic and political tensions be ignored by any realistic student of social disorganization.

MABEL A. ELLIOTT.

Pennsylvania College for Women.

The Ways of Men, An Introduction to Anthropology. By John Gillin, New York and London: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1948. Pp. xv + 649. \$4.50.

This book is more than a compendium of what is known about the physical and cultural life of man. The author, an advocate of applied anthropology, attempts to bring his own experience as a government employee, professor and field investigator in

Europe, Algeria, South and Central America and the United States, to the aid of anthropology. The book's claim to distinction lies in the author's effort to place the Primates and humans in a functional relation to culture and his attempt to bring man's biological, social and psychological background and nature under observation through the use of the tools of cultural anthropology, sociology and psychology. The range of the materials covered can be judged from the fact that details are presented on human food, drink, air, sleep and other requirements. The extent to which the various "acquired drives," as for example prestige, have in instances necessitated overcoming primary drives is also discussed. In addition, basic factors involved in genetics and race mixtures are treated. Culture is explained in terms of such concepts as "basic personality structure" derived from Kardiner and others, identification, projection, and internalization. In explaining culture the assumption is made that both individual and group behavior is to be understood as "goal directed" and patterned by norms of society. Organizations are spoken of as "going concerns" and the basic units of culture in which these groups function are specified as "the unit-custom and the goal." For analytical purposes culture is viewed from three levels: (1) the pattern level, (2) the activity level and, (3) the artificial (or material equipment) level. Habit formation and learning are described in terms of stimulus, drive, response and reward. Cultural situations are described as having: (1) the human component, (2) the environmental component, (3) the social component and, (4) very frequently a foreign cultural component.

Claiming to be a functionalist the author states that "by having function we mean that the activity involved in the unit-custom is so organized that the proper performance of the custom will achieve a goal, as defined by the culture, and that the custom in question when properly and fully performed is capable of operating in conjunction with other customs of the cultural system." p.

476. There are, the author tells us, four aspects of cultural integration: relatedness, linkage, consistency, and balance. The latter is akin to equilibrium which may be lost as illustrated in a typical manner by the author as follows:

"To revert to a partially physical analogy for a moment, we might think of a group of mountain climbers going up the face of a cliff, fastened together by ropes. They represent a system in which they are in a state of relatedness. They are physically linked together, and their respective energies are put forth in a consistent manner, so the performance of one climber does not interfere with the others. However, a point may come when on a ledge or a ridge with all members straining in the same direction they suddenly lose their balance and the whole party falls into the abyss." p. 524.

The main headings of the book are: The Human Animal, Social Life and Customs, Some Structures or Human Relationship, Patterning and Coordination of Culture, Individuality and Conformity, and Epilogue and Prologue. The last section which contains only one chapter called, Current Trends in Cultural Anthropology, is an excellent brief description and history of cultural anthropology.

The general principles of the book are illustrated by ethnological data, everyday phenomena and personal experiences of the author. At many points the empirical data, although interesting, are poorly conceptualized. Over-simplification occurs as in the case where trade unionism is explained in part by frustrations imposed by bosses and again where it is claimed that frustrations developed in the office can and are worked off by the punching bag or other types of exercise. Also Gillin's explanation of the incest taboo as being an institutionalized means through which man enlarges cooperative structures and avoids decreasing the size of basic units at marriage, thus putting any group which did not have an incest taboo at a disadvantage in competition seems weak. The universality of the incest taboo and the frustration and emotional

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disturbance accompanying its violation can scarcely be explained in this manner. To the reviewer, Chappel and Coon's explanation in terms of the damage incestual unions do groups as "going concerns" and the frustrations they impose on those involved in the chain of command seems at least as good an explanation. However, the Gillin explanation is certainly superior to earlier explanations which maintained that groups imposed the incest taboo to prevent deterioration of the biological stock. The prevalence of various types of preferential mating such as the required marriage of cousins in China destroys the biological argument.

The author's concept of an institution differs from that of Malinowski and Panunzio. He does not consider people as included in institutions and leans more toward Melver's and Parson's conceptions which consider the institution as only that which patterns and processes human behavior.

The book is written in a sprightly vein which will interest the college student of today. It has excellent and cleverly selected illustrations and will rival the best existing introductory cultural anthropology texts in comprehensiveness.

CHARLES P. LOOMIS.

Michigan State College.

Your School Distinct. By H. A. Dawson and others. Washington: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. 1948. Pp. 286. \$2.50.

This useful book discusses school district reorganization. One long chapter is devoted to factors related to the organization of school districts, discussed largely in practical sociological terms. The significance of the neighborhood and the community in relation both to reorganization and the educational program is given a chapter. Part II describes seven state-wide reorganization plans, fortunately representative of all regions of the United States. Here, unhappily, the discussion is too largely in terms of mechanics. The basic social survey used in New York and developed by Professor Dwight Sanderson is passed over in a sen-

tence. But apart from a considerable amount of data on rural school districts, the work is also an illustration at many points of applied rural sociology.

EDMUND DE S. BRUNNER.

Teachers College,
Columbia University.

BOOK NOTICES AND NOTES

Acclimatization in the Andes. By Carlos Monge. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1948. Pp. xix + 139.

Agricultural Economics. By Benjamin Horace Hibbard. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. x + 441. \$5.00.

America's Heartland: the Southwest. By Green Peyton (Green Peyton Wertebaker). Norman: The University of Oklahoma Press, 1948. Pp. 302. \$3.75.

The development of the southwestern states, Texas, Arkansas, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Louisiana from the days of the Indians and cattlemen to the present.

Anuario Estadístico Del Peru, 1946. Lima, Peru: Ministerio de Hacienda y Comercio, Dirección Nacional de Estadística, 1948. Pp. L + 606. Gratis.

A statistical abstract of census materials.

Boletín De Estadística Peruana. Lima Peru: Ministerio de Hacienda y Comercio, Dirección Nacional de Estadística. Vol. 8, No. 4. Oct.-Dec., 1947. Pp. 65. Gratis.

Booker T. Washington: Educator and Interracial Interpreter. By Basil Mathews. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948. Pp. 350. \$4.75.

British Medieval Population. By Josiah C. Russell. Albuquerque: The University of New Mexico Press, 1948. Pp. 398. \$6.00.

The Commonsense Psychiatry of Dr. Alfred Meyer. By Alfred Lief. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. xiii + 677. \$6.50.

Contains fifty-two selected papers by Dr. Meyer edited with a biographical narrative.

- Criminology*. By Ruth Shonle Cavan. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1948. Pp. xv + 747. \$4.25.
- Cultural Sociology*. By John Lewis Gillin and John Philip Gillin. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1948. Pp. viii + 844.
A revised edition of *An Introduction to Sociology*, 1942.
- Cybernetics, or Control and Communication in the Animal and the Machine*. By Norbert Wiener. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1948. Pp. 194. \$3.00.
- Dictionary of Modern Economics*. By Byrnes J. Horton, et. al. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. ix + 365. \$5.00.
An explanation of terms and phrases in economic theory and practice; digests of laws and condensations of Supreme Court decisions relating to economics.
- The Earth and Man* (Rev. Ed.) By Darrell Haug Davis. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1948. Pp. xxiv + 696. \$5.50.
A human geography. Profusely illustrated with photographs, maps, and charts.
- Economic Factors in Delinquency*. By Cletus Francis Dirksen. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. 94. \$2.00.
- Forecasts of the Population of the United States, 1945-1975*. By P. K. Whelpton, et. al. Washington: Gov't Print. Off., 1947. Pp. vi + 113. \$0.45. (For sale by the superintendent of Documents).
This publication was prepared for the United States Bureau of Census under the direction of Dr. Leon E. Truesdell and with the assistance of Hope Tisdale Eldridge and Jacob S. Siegel.
- Future Food and Agriculture Policy*. By John D. Black and Maxine E. Kiefer. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. viii + 348. \$3.50.
- Historical Sociology: Its Origins and Development*. By Harry Elmer Barnes. New York: Philosophical Library, 1948. Pp. x + 186. \$3.00.
- A History of Economic Doctrines* (Second English Edition). By Charles Gide and Charles Rist (Authorized translation by R. Richards). Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1948. Pp. 800. \$4.00.
- Husband Security*. By Huldah Temple. New York: The William Frederick Press, 1948. Pp. 85. \$2.00.
The problem American women face every day in keeping their homes and married lives going. A book which will appeal to family life counsellors.
- An Introduction to Sociology* (3rd Ed.) By Carl A. Dawson and Warner E. Gettys. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1948. Pp. ix + 764. \$5.00.
- Karl Marx's Interpretation of History*. By M. M. Bober. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948. \$6.00.
- Labor Problems in American Industry*. By Carroll Roop Daugherty. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1948. Pp. 1102. \$5.00.
- Mono-Juris*. By Joseph L. Tepper. New York: The William-Frederick Press, 1947. Pp. vii + 160. \$2.50.
A diagnosis of the ills of modern society and a program for the guidance of political and economic action through reason.
- Plenty of People* (Rev. Ed.) By Warren S. Thompson. New York: The Ronald Press, 1948. Pp. 275. \$3.50.
- Readings in Social Security*. By William Haber and Wilbur Cohen. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948. Pp. 634. \$5.75.
- Republica Del Peru: Censo Nacional de Poblacion de 1940, Vol. V*. Dept. de Lima, Ciudad de Lima, Prov. Const. Del Callao. Lima: Peru: Ministerio de Hacienda y Comercio, 1948. Pp. xlv + 222 + xx + 56. Gratis.
- The New Science of Giambattista Vico*. By Thomas Goddard Bergin and Max Harold (Trans.) Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1948. Pp. 413. \$5.00.
A translation of the Third Italian Edition of 1744.
- Second Session of the Permanent Migration Committee* (Proc.) Geneva, Switz.: International Labour Office, 1948. Pp. 172. \$1.00; 5s (paper).

Sociology and Social Problems. By Eva Jeany Ross. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. 352. \$2.75.

Sugar: Facts and Figures. (Unsigned). New York: United States Cuban Sugar Council, 1948. Pp. 159. Apply.

A handbook designed to promote a wider public understanding of the sugar producing industry, principally in Cuba.

Contains extensive information on the production and consumption of sugar.

World Community. By Quincy Wright, Ed. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. 332. \$5.00.

Your Life in the Country. By Effie G. Bathurst. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. viii + 399. \$2.80.

A popularly written book on home management in the country.

NEWS NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Edited by Leland B. Tate

THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

HOLDS TWO BUSINESS MEETINGS
CONGRESS HOTEL, CHICAGO, ILL.
DECEMBER 28 AND 30, 1948

The first business meeting was called to order at 10:10 a.m. December 28 by President Charles P. Loomis and continued for about one hour. Seventy persons were present.

Announcements were made concerning cancellation of the dinner meeting, plans for the second business meeting and personnel of the Auditing and Resolutions committees.

Minutes of the August 1947 meetings published in the December 1947 issue of the journal, *Rural Sociology*, were read by the secretary-treasurer and accepted as printed.

Managing editor, C. Horace Hamilton,

gave his annual report on publication of the journal, *Rural Sociology*, in which he said that the costs of publication had increased; also subscriptions; so its financial situation was still favorable. It was moved by Judson Landis, seconded and carried to accept the report as presented.

Secretary-treasurer Leland B. Tate gave a report on membership and finances of the Society for 1948 compared with three previous years. It revealed that members had increased from 400 to 442; that bank balances had gone up from \$225 to \$820; and, that over half of the 1948 members had renewed their memberships for 1949 and brought the new year financial balance to approximately \$1,500. It was moved by Rockwell Smith, seconded and carried to accept the report with appreciation for progress shown over the past four years.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

Balance on deposit, Dec. 15, 1947\$ 571.34

Receipts

(1) From dues and contributions 1402.16
(2) From Managing Editor of *Rural Sociology* as 1948
fund from sale of back issues 55.24

Total balance and receipts\$2028.74

Expenditures

(1) Payments to Journal, *Rural Sociology*, 1948
including 1@ \$1.50, 83@ \$2.00 and 355@ \$2.50\$1055.00
(2) Postage, supplies, calls and telegrams 70.65
(3) Printing 31.00
(4) Rental and slide projector at Chicago 7.00
(5) Bank deduction for post-dated check 3.50
(6) Back issue of Journal purchased for resale 1.00
(7) Refund for overpayment of dues90

Total expenditures\$1169.65

Balance for 1948\$ 859.09

Plus 1949 dues deposited 12-9-48 and 1-13-49 828.50

Balance for 1948 and January, 1949\$1687.59

In response to the secretary-treasurer's comments that he had served four years, was still very much interested in the work of the Society, but needed time for other activities and believed in rotation of the office, it was agreed that the incoming executive committee should consider the appointment of another member as secretary-treasurer for 1949. Former secretary-treasurer, Robert A. Polson emphasized the need for someone with ample clerical assistance because anyone in this position will need about one-third of an office secretary's time.

Managing editor, C. Horace Hamilton, gave a summary of replies to the questionnaire recently mailed to members concerning contents of the journal. He stated that some of the replies were unfavorable but the majority were highly favorable or contained valuable suggestions for improvements. He also pointed out that Hornell Hart of Duke University, in a recent analysis of society journals, ranked our journal as one of the best in the country.

President Charles P. Loomis asked for a list of items to be considered at the second business meeting and received the following:

(1) A suggestion from Charles E. Lively that the Society seek to obtain the C. J. Galpin album of letters presented to him by fellow sociologists at the time of his retirement, which is now in possession of a relative.

(2) Another suggestion from Charles E. Lively that the Society consider publication of a professional directory with biographical sketches which would be useful for members of the Society and others interested in contacting and employing rural sociologists.

(3) A suggestion from Douglas Marshall that the Society consider publication of a special edition of the journal for proceedings of annual meetings.

(4) A suggestion from O. D. Duncan that persons agreeing to review books prepare their reviews promptly and make them shorter and more readable.

(5) A suggestion from W. A. Anderson that we consider the possibility of another

summer meeting such as the one held in 1947.

There being no further business, the meeting was adjourned.

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The second business meeting was called to order at 9 a.m. December 30 by President Charles P. Loomis and continued for more than three hours.

Irwin Sanders, chairman of the Committee on World Social Organization gave the report for his committee. It was moved by Irwin Sanders, seconded and carried to continue and enlarge the committee and empower it to explore the possible preparation and publication of a synoptic sociological atlas for selected countries and if possible obtain foundation funds as the means of financial support.

The report of the committee on the 1950 Census was given by Margaret Hagood and a copy filed with the secretary. In the report it was shown that a slight change would be made in the definition of "rural non-farm" population and that probably from 5 to 10 million rural non-farm persons under the old definition will be classified as urban in the 1950 census. It was moved by C. Horace Hamilton, seconded and carried that the proposed changes for the 1950 census as presented by the committee be approved. It was moved by Rockwell Smith, seconded and carried that we recommend to the director of the Census a question calling for designation of religious affiliation to be included in the 1950 schedule. It was moved by David Lindstrom, seconded and disapproved that our census committee consider and recommend the idea that all towns of 5,000 and under be classified as rural in the 1950 census.

The report of the Library Committee to work with the American Library Association was read by Chairman Edgar Schuler and a copy filed with the secretary. It was moved by Clinton L. Folse, seconded and carried that the report be accepted as presented. It was moved by David Lindstrom seconded and carried that the committee

be commended and advised to continue its work.

The report of the Auditing Committee was given by Harold Hoffsommer who spoke favorably of the records kept by the secretary-treasurer. It was moved by Hoffsommer, seconded and carried that the records as audited be approved.

A report on election results was made by the secretary-treasurer who, with George Bloome and Rita Hale, students of Virginia Polytechnic Institute, had tabulated the votes and certified the election of the following officials for 1949:

President: Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University.

Vice-President: Ray E. Wakeley, Iowa State College.

New Members of:

Executive Committee: Carl C. Taylor, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture.

Editorial Board, *Rural Sociology*: O. D. Duncan, Oklahoma A and M College.

Committee on Research: Donald G. Hay, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture.

Committee on Teaching: Sigurd Johansen, New Mexico State College.

Committee on Extension: M. E. John, Pennsylvania State College.

In response to comment by David Lindstrom and W. E. Garnett about rural education in the United States, it was moved by David Lindstrom, seconded and carried that a committee be appointed to work with the Rural Education Association on problems of rural education such as reorganization, social science subjects in high school, etc.

In response to comments by Charles E. Lively about the Galpin album of letters it was moved by Rockwell Smith, seconded and carried that Charles E. Lively and J. H. Kolb be appointed as a committee to get the album for the Society.

Following comments by Charles E. Lively on the need for a professional directory, it was moved by him, seconded and carried that a committee be appointed to plan and prepare a professional directory and that

the Executive Committee be empowered to publish it.

In reply to comments on a possible summer meeting in Michigan, Colorado, Montana, Florida or elsewhere, it was moved by Olen Leonard, seconded and carried that the Executive Committee poll our members about this matter not later than February 28, 1949 and use the results as a basis for planning future meetings.

Following comments by David Lindstrom on community development, it was moved by him, seconded and carried that a committee of five be appointed to explore with the American Country Life Association, other organizations and agencies, the possibilities of a national workshop conference on community development and have authority to arrange such a conference if it seems desirable.

Following comments by Gordon Blackwell on extension activities, it was moved by him, seconded and carried that a committee be appointed to study the need for a work conference on rural sociology extension, and if desirable, plan and conduct such a conference under the sponsorship of the Society.

Following a suggestion from Carl Taylor that the Research Committee be enlarged to include nine or more members empowered to study and name several significant fields of research, and comments on the proposal by B. Youngblood, Charles E. Lively, William Sewell and others, it was moved by Neal Gross, seconded and carried that a committee of fifteen be appointed to appraise the whole field of rural sociology over a period of two or more years and make recommendations for its more orderly and systematic development.

Following comments on the proposal for a special edition of the journal *Rural Sociology* for proceedings of annual meetings it was moved by David Lindstrom, seconded and carried that the matter be referred to the Executive Committee.

Chairman Carl F. Kraenzel, of the Resolutions Committee presented and moved the adoption of the following resolutions, which were approved as read:

"I. *Whereas* Dr. Leland B. Tate has so faithfully and unstintingly served the Society in the capacity as secretary-treasurer during the past four years, and since he is yielding his office to another after these years of service, therefore be it: *Resolved*, that the members of the Rural Sociological Society take this means to express their sincere and hearty thanks and appreciation to Mr. Tate.

"II. *Whereas* the management and the staff of the Congress Hotel have made the stay of the rural sociologists so pleasant for the annual meetings of 1948, therefore be it: *Resolved*, that the secretary of the Society be instructed to transmit the appreciation of our members to the management and personnel of the Hotel."

President-elect Carle C. Zimmerman speaking for the new Executive Committee, announced the appointment of Randall C. Hill, Kansas State College, as the Society's new secretary-treasurer beginning January 1, 1949.

There being no further business the meeting was adjourned.

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RURAL SOCIOLOGY JOURNAL

REPORT OF THE MANAGING EDITOR

There are two high lights in this year's report of the Journal. (1) Printing costs have risen from \$1,698 in 1947 to \$2,947 in 1948. (2) The gross real income of the Journal increased from \$2,792 to \$3,602.

The increase in printing costs was about \$1,250. The increase in gross real income was only \$810.

Because of a very favorable printing contract in previous years the Journal has been able to absorb the increase in printing costs without asking for the Society to increase its payment for subscriptions. However, unless we get more new members and subscribers it will become necessary to ask the Society to increase its membership fee, possibly by 1950. Another alternative would be to keep the size of the Journal down to 100 pages.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF THE JOURNAL RURAL SOCIOLOGY 1948

<i>Receipts</i>	
Cash on Hand, January 1, 1948	\$3,160.84
From Rural Sociological Society on 1948 Business	1,055.00
General Subscriptions and Sales	2,417.81 ¹
Reprint Sales to Authors	291.46
Sale of Back Numbers for the Society	72.80
Advertising	129.20
Subsidy from N. C. State College	250.00
Total Income	\$7,377.11
<i>Expenditures</i>	
Printing <i>Journal</i> (including \$250 from College)	\$2,947.10
Reprints	296.10
Postage and Other Communications	169.91
Stationary and Advertising	98.10
Supplies and Equipment	32.77
Drayage	6.00
Binding <i>Journal</i> Copies	5.79
Educational Press Association Membership	10.00
Buying out-of-print numbers	7.00 ²
To Society for Sale of Back Issues	58.24 ²
Labor	259.76
Copyright	16.00
Total Expenditures	\$3,906.77
Total Income	\$7,377.11
Total Expenditures	3,906.77
Cash on Hand, December 20, 1948	\$3,470.34

¹ Includes \$1,329.00 paid for advance subscriptions to *Rural Sociology*.

² Excluding \$3.00 spent by Journal for Vol. 1, No. 1 and deducted from check sent Society for Back Issues (Actual check \$55.24).

SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRE ON JOURNAL POLICY

During the last year the members of the Society were sent a questionnaire on Journal policy. Of the 400 questionnaires sent out, 167 replies were received. The questionnaire included questions relating to general articles, abstracts, research notes, book reviews, current bulletin reviews, news notes and announcements, and general matters. This summary is based both on a tabulation of replies and on the comments of the members.

With regard to content of general articles, 85 members expressed an interest in articles which discuss policies, action programs and planning; 53 want more discussion of sociological theory; 51, more articles on social legislation; 49 think that we should publish more shorter articles and only 10 think that articles should be longer; and opinion is about evenly divided on articles of a statistical character. The comments on this question cover a wide range of suggestions which reflect the special interests of members; such as, education, social work, extension, and research. In general our members do not feel that we should change the type of content of our general articles. Emphasis should be placed on high quality, basic studies combining both theory and empirical data. With regard to better theoretical orientation, one member said:

"By asking for more on 'theory', I mean only more emphasis on the systematic-scientific side—not hair-splitting intellectual exercises apart from real problems."

Other typical comments follow:

"I would like to see more space in the Journal devoted to methods, techniques, etc., being utilized in current research projects."

"As an amateur I look to the Journal to keep me up on the field of rural sociology as an academic discipline including all phases—theory, methodology, research results, rural life trends, and the application of knowledge to social policy legislation."

"The Journal should make a stronger appeal to others than research rural sociologists. I doubt if the Journal makes much

appeal to rural clergymen, rural editors, rural teachers, agricultural extension workers."

"I should like to see the Journal continue as a scientific Journal, as it has been, and not to become a social action magazine."

"I think the problem is good articles rather than any kind of article."

"By statistical, I mean research reports; and while leaning to the quantitative approach, we should not rule out publication of solid work just because it is not expressed primarily in numbers."

"I think the Journal is swell as is. Articles should be accepted solely on their merit as contributing to rural sociology teaching, research, or extension."

"I think we have the best sociological Journal there is, and I would hate to see any radical changes."

The six more serious weaknesses in our general articles, in the opinion of our members, are as follows:

"Lack of theoretical orientation"

"Wordy and long"

"Loose and rambling organization"

"Elaboration of the obvious and superficial"

"Dull literary style"

"Poor statistical presentation"

Seventy-five percent of those replying favor continuation of English abstracts. On Spanish abstracts, a minority expressed any opinion, and that was divided.

With regard to the Research Note Section, the members feel the following materials should be emphasized, in order of preference:

Brief reports of important research findings

Brief descriptions of new research and statistical techniques or of new applications of such techniques

Brief discussions of new research projects

The members do not feel that the department should be a catchall for short articles, or that it should present an annual census of research projects.

With regard to book reviews, 70 per cent of those replying expressed an interest in

shorter book reviews. Only 14 per cent preferred longer reviews.

Similarly, 80 per cent favored shorter current bulletin reviews. Eighty-six per cent favor continuation of the bulletin checklist. Seventy-two per cent would like to see bulletins listed from allied fields; such as, agricultural economics, political science, etc.

With regard to the News Notes and Announcements, the following opinions were expressed:

84 per cent are satisfied with this section as published.

58 per cent feel that the notes should be personal, instead of formal.

63 per cent send news notes to the editor only on request.

92 per cent read the News Notes Section.

71 per cent suggest that the editor continue to request news notes.

With regard to contributing editors, the members raised questions as to the purpose of this feature. Several felt that it should be abolished. Among other things, it was suggested that certain foreign countries, certain geographical sections of America, and certain Foundations should be represented among the contributing editors. Few specific nominations were made and these have been referred to the Board of Editors.

This question was asked: "How do you feel about moving the publication of the Journal from school to school as a general policy?" One hundred and four members commented on this question. Many members did not express a definite opinion, but felt that the Board of Editors should move the Journal when and if it appeared to be in the best interest of the Journal. Of those members who did express a definite opinion, the sentiment for moving and not moving the Journal was about evenly divided.

A few suggestions were made for changing the format and type; but there was no evidence of general dissatisfaction with present policies. Perhaps the same size type throughout should be used—possibly a size midway between that of the articles and

the book reviews. (A modern style—9 on 11.)

One or two members suggested printing the Journal in smaller type. One suggested that we put as many words on a page as the *American Sociological Review*, but another said that he liked the *Rural Sociological Journal* better than the *American Sociological Review*.

REPORT OF SECOND NATIONAL PRE-CONFERENCE WORKSHOP

SPONSORED BY THE JOINT COMMITTEE
OF THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY
AND THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.
Congress Hotel, Chicago, Ill., Monday,
Dec. 27, 1948

First, we wish to commend the Joint Committee for the activities it has carried on during the past two years.

Second, we strongly recommend that cooperative activities of this type be continued, but on a strengthened and expanded basis among both rural sociologists and extension librarians.

Third, we specifically recommend, in order to achieve the strengthened and expanded type of cooperative working relationships we desire, that the appropriate officials of the respective organizations be empowered and instructed to take such action as is necessary and feasible in order to accomplish the following:

One, provide effective means of communication between librarians, rural sociologists, and other social scientists, regarding such matters of mutual concern as current developments in the field of library demonstration and evaluation.

Two, encourage participation by representatives of additional specialized groups in the cooperative working relationships both from the social sciences (such as economics, political science, and cultural anthropology) and from the field of library science.

Three, prepare minimum planning standards for state and inter-state regional

library demonstration and evaluation programs.

Four, arrange for cooperative pre-conference or post-conference workshops at each of the seven 1949 American Library Association regional meetings.

Five, request from educational, scientific, or philanthropic foundations, or any other sources, such financial assistance as may be necessary, to accomplish the foregoing objectives.

Six, appoint such state and inter-state regional committees and representatives as may be necessary to accomplish the foregoing objectives.

Respectfully submitted,
Edgar A. Schuler, Co-Chairman.

RURAL-URBAN CENSUS CHANGES FOR 1950

The Bureau of the Census has long been aware of the need for an urban-rural classification which would effect a more realistic division and distribution of urban and rural areas. Under the present definition, many places with urban characteristics have been classified as rural while other areas of a rural nature have been thrown in with urban-type communities under special rules. The proposed changes in the classification are being made possible by extensive geographical work carried out by the Bureau.

The urban population as now defined is made up for the most part of the people living in cities and other incorporated places which have 2,500 inhabitants or more. Boundaries have been delineated recently for the larger unincorporated places in the United States, and it is planned that those places with 2,500 inhabitants or more in 1950 also will be called urban. This will tend to increase the urban population and decrease the rural non-farm population.

For our larger cities, it appears reasonable that all the surrounding incorporated places, regardless of size, and all the closely settled unincorporated area which forms a continuous development from the central city should be classified as urban. To solve this problem, a line which will enclose this

urban fringe is being drawn around each city with a population of 50,000 inhabitants or more. The effect on urban-rural tabulations will generally be an increase in the urban population. For future censuses, it is probable that this fringe proposal may be applied to smaller cities.

Other changes in the urban-rural classification will partially offset the increases in urban population indicated above. Over 130 minor civil divisions in the United States with approximately four per cent of the total urban population had been classified as urban under special rules which no longer will be observed. (These rules are fully explained in Sixteenth Census of the United States, *Population*, Vol. I, p. 10). Under the revised system of classification, only those portions of these minor civil divisions which have been delineated as separate unincorporated places and have a population of 2,500 inhabitants or more, or which fall within the urban fringe of a large city, will be classified as urban. The end product of all these changes, it is confidently believed, will give a truer picture of the division and distribution of the populations living under urban and rural conditions.

Certain basic tabulations of the 1950 population data will be prepared by minor civil divisions. These tabulations will supply limited statistics for the urban-rural population on the basis used in 1940, including information on the age, sex, and race of the population. This procedure will yield figures which will be comparable with those of 1940 and which may be used as a basis for birth, death, and other statistics which are reported for separate political divisions. The changes in urban-rural classifications will have no effect on the data supplied for individual incorporated areas, but will make it possible to publish population totals and other information for individual unincorporated towns or villages.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION GRANTS TO SOCIAL SCIENCE

The financial resources and leadership of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, one

of the largest foundations in the country, are being increasingly devoted to the critical problems of human relations, world affairs and the revitalization of democratic values. Charles Dollard, president, states in the Corporation's thirty-seventh annual report, released in December.

Reflecting the Corporation's growing concern with these problems, grants amounting to \$3,421,000 were made in the fields of social science and world affairs during the past fiscal year.

In addition, a grant totaling \$5,000,000 was voted to the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America, payable in annual installments of \$1,000,000, beginning in 1948-49. Originally set up and capitalized by the Corporation, TIAA will receive this latest grant as aid in strengthening its reserves.

Exclusive of the grant to TIAA, the report reveals that 73 per cent of the funds voted during the past year involved the "utilization or development of the social sciences." This compares with 28 per cent granted for the same purpose in 1945-46. For grants designed to "bridge the gap between the universities and the world affairs," which include many of the social science projects, the figures are 64 per cent for the past year as against five per cent for 1945-46.

The Corporation's income during the past year was \$5,700,190. Its total assets at book value amounted to \$170,787,520. Established in 1911 as the culmination of the late Andrew Carnegie's philanthropic program, the Corporation uses its income, under its charter, "for the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding among the people of the United States and of the British Dominions and Colonies."

A review of the foundation's orientation since the war's end shows that "an ever-increasing proportion of Corporation income has been committed to enterprises which hold high promise of creating more adult understanding of international affairs, more effective use of the social sciences, more active communication between our universities

and the men in government and business who must make decisions of far-reaching importance, and better teaching."

CHILDREN'S BUREAU CLEARINGHOUSE ON CHILD LIFE RESEARCH

A clearinghouse for research in child life has been established in the Children's Bureau as an aid to research workers in keeping abreast with studies in progress. The Children's Bureau is a unit of the Social Security Administration, Federal Security Agency.

The clearinghouse has been set up in response to numerous requests from research workers and professional organizations who believe that such a center will promote collaboration and interchange of information on current research in the various fields affecting child life. Lack of a central clearinghouse has in the past been a handicap to many investigators because there has been no one place where they could find out about current projects in their own fields or related ones.

Research workers agree that the availability of such information will encourage more cooperative planning, as it can be a communicating device for investigators in different specialties. The clearinghouse will provide a systematic way to keep professional people informed about research in progress, and to bridge the time-gap between completion and publication of work.

The establishment of a clearinghouse in the Children's Bureau grew out of a series of conferences held during the past year to review what is going on in research in child life, what the gaps are, and how the needs for research can be met. Representatives of many fields in child life research participated in one or more of these conferences.

These representatives recommended that the Children's Bureau develop a center for information about projects pertaining to children and mothers being undertaken by one or more of the various disciplines. In mid-September an advisory committee met with the Children's Bureau staff to help

work out the best way to get the clearinghouse started.

The clearinghouse will canvass investigators in various fields for reports of studies in progress, including collections of unpublished data. A bulletin will be released in 1949 to inform research workers about ongoing research in child life. The clearinghouse will provide information to research workers on request.

The Children's Bureau emphasizes that the clearinghouse will not attempt to summarize or indicate the conclusions of research projects, but will furnish accounts of the nature of projects as reported to it by individuals or organizations. Many researchers will be asked to prepare their own brief descriptive statements about projects, on report forms, and results or conclusions will not be included except as may be desired by the investigator himself. Participation will be voluntary, but it is hoped that cooperation will be extensive as the value of the clearinghouse will be dependent upon its scope and coverage.

Inquiries may be directed to Dr. Clara E. Cuncell, Director, Clearinghouse, Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C.

NEW RESEARCH JOURNAL

Agricultural Economics Research is to be issued quarterly by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. The first number carries the date-line January 1949. The magazine is to be a research publication for professional readers. Members of the staff of the Bureau in Washington and in the field will contribute as well as individuals who are working on projects either cooperatively or under contract with the Bureau.

It will publish articles that report on the results or findings of research carried forward within the Bureau. These articles may be in the nature of interim reports on work in progress or statements that actually terminate the projects. It will publish articles on new research methods or techniques that are being developed as well as discussions of old techniques that are in

regular use. It will occasionally publish articles on methods or techniques which are designed to elicit or encourage discussions at the technical level. Other articles will relate to new or expanding areas of research or statistical fact-gathering.

INVENTORY OF RESEARCH ON RACE RELATIONS

The Committee on Education, Training and Research in Race Relations of the University of Chicago, in cooperation with the American Council on Race Relations, is conducting an inventory of research in race relations and minority group problems, in order to make available information on current research which will be of value to persons and agencies carrying on research and also to those engaged in action programs in the field. It is planned to issue quarterly bulletins describing current and recently completed research projects. Two bulletins have already been issued, dated June 30, 1948, and December 31, 1948. The inventory bulletins carry accounts of two kinds: (1) descriptions of studies reported in answer to the inventory questionnaire and (2) abstracts of studies contained in published articles, pamphlets and books. All those who are engaged in research in racial and cultural relations are invited to write to the Committee for the inventory questionnaire, on which they can report studies already completed or in progress. The address is Committee on Education, Training and Research in Race Relations, The University of Chicago, 4901 Ellis Avenue, Chicago 15, Illinois.

SYSTEMATIC SOURCE BOOKS WANTED

Persons having single copies or sets of Sorokin, Zimmerman and Galpin, *Systematic Source Book in Rural Sociology*, which they will sell, should correspond with Carl C. Zimmerman, 200 Emerson Hall, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Right now a single copy of Volume I is needed for the Charles O. Reynard Memorial Library at Hiram College, Ohio. Also Professor Andor Csizmadia of the Institute for Applied Soci-

ology, Eger, Hungary has written to Professor Lowry Nelson at Minnesota seeking a set for the Library of the Institute at Eger. Volume II and III are especially needed. (Nelson is sending them vol. I.) Professor Csizmadia would appreciate any gifts of writings by individual rural sociologists for the library of this institute.

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ACTIVITIES

Cornell University. The Department of Rural Sociology will have a number of graduate research and teaching assistantships open for the academic year 1949-50. These carry a base stipend of \$1,200 plus tuition. A fifteen per cent cost of living bonus is currently in effect. Appointments are on a twelve-month basis. Inquiries should be addressed to Professor R. A. Polson, acting head of the department.

Graduate majors in rural sociology are also eligible for fellowships and scholarships offered by the university which require no service. Application for these must be made with the Dean of the Graduate School prior to March 1.

The expansion of the cultural anthropology courses in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, of the human relations courses in the School of Industrial and Labor Relations and of graduate study in extension education increases the supplementary offerings open to rural sociology majors.

Since the Graduate School at Cornell is still operating under the post-war "quota" system which assigns a fixed number of graduate majors for each department, it is desirable for interested students to make an early application for admission.

Doctoral candidates now in residence include John R. Bertrand, on leave from Texas A. & M.; Harold R. Capener, Utah; A. L. Coleman, on leave from the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U.S.D.A.; C. M. Chatterjee, on leave from Christian Ewing College, Allahabad, India; William A. Forsyth, Utah; Ezra Geddes, Utah; and Edward O. Moe, on leave from the Extension

Service, U.S.D.A. Master's candidates in residence include Gordon Cummings, New York; Fathalla Halloul, Egypt; and Bruce M. Lansdale, Greece.

Professor W. A. Anderson has recently prepared an up-to-date *Bibliography of the Department of Rural Sociology, Cornell University* which has been issued by the department as Mimeograph Bulletin No. 20. In addition to publications of staff members up to October 1948 the bibliography lists all theses prepared for the degree of Master of Science and Doctor of Philosophy by graduates of the department.

University of Missouri. Plans are now being laid for an experimental study of general morbidity in the farm population of Missouri by the use of small sample methods. Field work will probably begin about April 1, 1949. The project is a cooperative one with the Division of Farm Population and Rural Life, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

University of North Carolina. Recent publications by staff members include: *Church and Community in the South*, by Gordon W. Blackwell, Lee M. Brooks, and S. H. Hobbes, Jr.; *Southern Resources for Industrial Development*, by Harriet L. Her-ring; *Building Atlanta's Future*, by John E. Ivey, Jr., N. J. Demerath, and Woodrow Breland; *Exploring the South*, by Rupert B. Vance, John E. Ivey, Jr., and Marjorie Bond; and *The Uniform of Colour*, by Hilda Kuper.

Lewis Mumford has been appointed visiting lecturer for the coming year under the auspices of the Department of City and Regional Planning, the Institute for Research in Social Science, and the Department of Art.

The University has received a grant of \$100,000 from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, payable over a period of five years for the development of an interdisciplinary research program at the Institute for Research in Social Science, under Gordon Blackwell, Director.

Dr. Cecil Sheps of the School of Public Health has been appointed Research Associate in the Institute for Research in Social Science. His field of research will be the social aspects of health and medical care. In addition, it is expected that this appointment will facilitate interdisciplinary research in such fields as housing and urbanization. Dr. Sheps has the M.D. degree from the University of Manitoba and the M.P.H. degree from Yale where he engaged in urban ecological research under Maurice Davie.

Northwestern University. The Carnegie Corporation has made a grant of \$13,500 to Northwestern University to assist in the development of a joint introductory course covering the fields of anthropology, psychology and sociology.

The new one-year course will be entitled "An Introduction to the Sciences of Human Behavior", and will be established in the College of Liberal Arts under the joint direction of the Departments of Anthropology, Psychology and Sociology. The aim of the course is to coordinate the essential concepts and materials normally presented in the separate introductory courses of the respective fields.

Wayne University. Dr. Joseph W. Eaton spent the summer of 1948 on a field study of the cooperative farm communities which

were established in the late 1930's by the Farm Security Administration to rehabilitate low income farmers. The objective of the study was to summarize and to appraise this government program in social planning. Most of the twenty-four projects are located in North Carolina, South Dakota, Nebraska, Arizona, and California. All were visited and the administrative officials connected with these projects interviewed.

The survey was made under a grant of the Rural Settlement Institute of New York, and publication of the results is planned.

University of Wisconsin. As a part of its Centennial celebration the University of Wisconsin is sponsoring a Symposium on American Regionalism to be held at Madison on April 14-15, 1949. The major sections of the symposium include: The Concept of Regionalism; Historic Regions of the United States; Regionalism in American Culture; The Regional Concept as a Practical Force. Of particular interest to sociologists will be papers on "The Concept of Regionalism as a Tool for Research" by Rupert Vance; "The T.V.A." by Gordon Clapp; "The Great Lakes Cut-over Region" by Walter Rowlands; "The Upper Great Plains" by Elmer Starch; "The Promises of Regionalism" by Howard Odum and "The Limitations of Regionalism" by Louis Wirth. The symposium is open to the public and interested social scientists are cordially invited.

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